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THE PROGRESS OF THE WORLD.

*The
Railroad
Crisis.*

The argument for government ownership of railroads in the United States has usually been based upon the view that these highways of commerce are of public necessity and should be placed under public control to insure to the citizen an equality of advantage in their use. The principal argument against such governmental ownership has been the superior practical efficiency of private direction and management. But unless conditions notoriously prevalent just now should soon be changed for the better, the public-ownership advocates will become confident and aggressive along a wholly new line of advance, where they have heretofore been on the defensive. They will point to the complete breaking down of efficiency in the actual business of transportation in this country, and will begin to claim that the Government could not possibly do things so badly and would in all probability manage the roads with a far higher degree of business efficiency.

*Not Ready for
Public
Ownership.*

Furthermore, they will point to the inability of the great railroad managers to obtain the money they need to make absolutely necessary improvements, whereas the Government of the United States could obtain almost unlimited capital at half the rate of interest the railroads would be obliged to pay. It does not follow that these new arguments will be conclusive. There is no evidence as yet to show that the people of the United States, justly exasperated with the railroad managers as they have become, are by any means prepared to throw the burden of railroad ownership and administration upon the United States Government. On the other hand, they will heartily support the Government in its present policy of investigating abuses and trying to compel those responsible for present con-

ditions to apply practical remedies. Government inquiry has disclosed the fact that in spite of drastic laws and a perfectly clear development of opinion as to the right and wrong of the matter, the railroads have been continuing the general practice of rebates and favoritism.

*Railroad
Men Under
Scrutiny.*

The responsible railroad managers have for several years past looked the country straight in the face and declared that they were scrupulously obeying the laws against discrimination. But when the Bureau of Corporations and the Interstate Commerce Commission proceed to make investigations, and the Department of Justice takes an active hand in the business, it turns out that by all sorts of ingenious methods, direct and indirect, the favored patrons of our railroads are aided by the railroad officials to break down their competitors in business. The bigger element of railroad men,—it is often now asserted,—instead of attending to the practical business for which the stockholders are supposed to be paying them their salaries, are to be found in Wall Street and in the large New York hotels, building up their private fortunes by day, and pursuing their pleasures by night. The smaller fry of railroad officials have been the holders of stocks in coal companies, grain elevator companies, and other enterprises along the line, and it would be absurd to deny that as the prevailing rule such companies and enterprises have been favored with a supply of freight cars and other facilities for doing business, when their competitors and the general public have been denied. When things like this have been alleged against railroad officials, they have turned their eyes to heaven with protestations against the injustice of such slanderous accusations. But a moderate amount of ener-

getic effort on the part of the Government investigators brings these things to light.

*Plight of
the Small
Investor.*

The ordinary stockholder in the railroad is just as helpless as the unfavored shipper of freight. A great game of railroad strategy has been going on in Wall Street for years past, and one of its principal objects has been to freeze the small investor out, and to concentrate the actual ownership as well as the control of the railroads in a few hands. Thus the most conspicuous achievement of our boasted railroad system within the past few years has been the making of a group of multi-millionaires who have rendered little, if any, return to the stockholders or to the country for their vast acquisitions of wealth and power. They have juggled with securities, have played the stock market up and down, have played tricks with their dividend policies, have so falsified their bookkeeping as to conceal surpluses, and have virtually confiscated the property of the confiding stockholders by the use they have made of the proxies which they themselves have solicited through the mails, at the stockholders' expense.

*The Country
Ahead of
the Roads.*

While the railroad magnates have been thus engaged, this great country has been maturing in its agricultural and industrial life, and its domestic commerce has been increasing in volume and in value every day. If good railroad men,—drawing their salaries, letting the stock market alone, and serving the interests of the general public and the honest investors in railroad securities,—had been running the railroads and attending to their business in a proper way, there is not much reason to suppose that the railroads would not also have been developed and improved at an equal pace with the development and progress of the general business of the country. Our great prosperity has not come upon us unawares, and the failure of the railroads to respond efficiently to it is due to the fact that the railroad system has been used for making a set of individuals enormously rich at the expense of the country's prosperity. The "magnates" have been engaged in getting control of railroad properties through the devious methods of corporation finance, and in unloading inflated securities upon the investing public. The country was prospering, railroad earnings were therefore improving, and the masters of railroad finance managed in one way or another to capitalize this in-

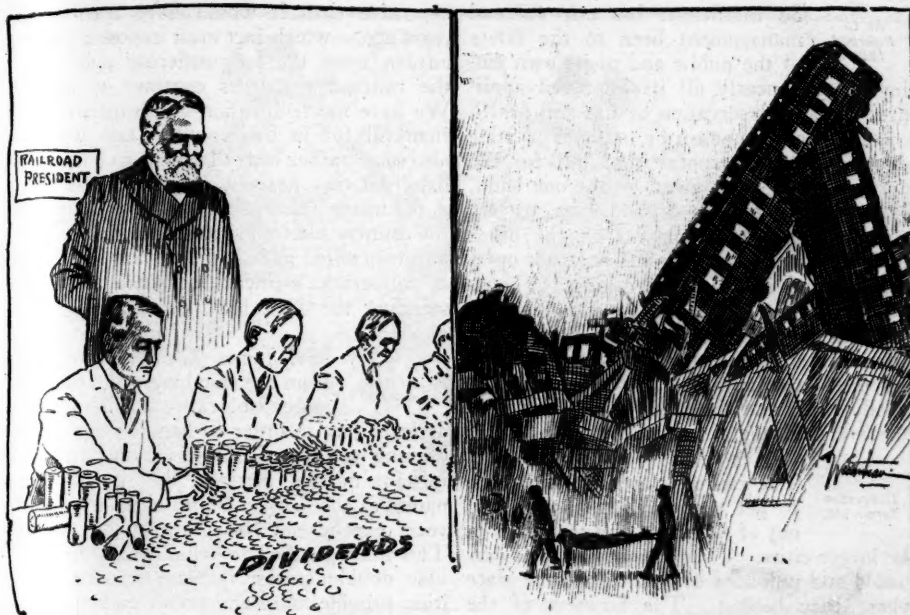
creased earning capacity and to pocket the proceeds. These charges are not to be taken as applying to every railroad line or every railroad financier. But it is unquestionably true that a great part of the recent total increase of the capitalization of American railroads does not represent actual expenditure for improving the roads and their equipment, but rather represents the great game of private financiering, by means of which a set of men have rapidly become multi-millionaires. They have got control of the American railroad system, have bled it unmercifully for their own benefit, and the result is that it no longer serves the practical purposes for which railroads exist.

*An
Obsolete
System.*

It is true that a great deal of railroad improvement has been accomplished, in spite of all this looting and mismanagement. Heavier cars and locomotives have compelled the use of heavier rails as old tracks have from time to time worn out. But, generally speaking, American railroads, with all their rich traffic, have not been kept up to date. Passenger cars have become shabby and obsolete, and old locomotives have been kept in use which ought to have gone to the junk heap. German railroads under government ownership have been kept up to a far better state of efficiency, circumstances being brought into fair comparison, than our American roads. It does not follow that government ownership is everywhere a remedy. Russia's Transiberian road was a rotten affair through the looting of government officials,—just as many of our lines are rotten through the looting of our private railroad financiers.

*The
Facts as
They Are.*

We have had a long series of years of vast prosperity. The general business of the country has been able and willing to pay for the making of good railroads, for ample, modern equipment, and for prompt, rapid service. Furthermore, the shipping public and the investing public together certainly have paid over to the men in railroad control an amount of money quite sufficient to have given us a series of trunk lines like those of England and Germany, with well-graded roadbeds, heavy double tracks, permanent bridges, decent stations, ample terminal facilities, and good rolling stock and general equipment. For all these things our prosperous American public has not only been willing and able to pay, but has actually



Less attention to this——

And more to this.

THE ABOVE IS SUGGESTED AS ONE WAY OF PREVENTING WRECKINGS.
From the *Ohio State Journal* (Columbus).

planked down the money. What is the result? We have a small and select population of plutocrats who control our railroads and have somehow managed to put into their private pockets some hundreds or thousands of millions of dollars through their ability to skim the cream off the country's prosperity, while at least a hundred thousand miles of our railroad system has become unfit for the ordinary needs of current traffic, with rotting cross-ties, light rails, wooden trestles instead of permanent bridges, sharp curves and bad grades surviving from the early period of railroad engineering, shabby and miserable stations, and a general incompetency in equipment and operation that has fallen to a stage of hopelessness and despondency, where it has ceased either to apologize or to be ashamed.

A
Suffering
Country.

There are vast networks of railroads in this country where it is a needless expense to print timetables, because there is no longer any such thing as the operation of trains on schedule. There are sections of the country where the railroads are refusing to receive freight for shipment, either because they cannot supply the cars or cannot see any reasonable prospect of having them conveyed to the point of des-

tination. It is true there has been rapid growth of population and traffic in the West, but this recent growth has been nothing like so rapid relatively as was that of the seventies and eighties. The railroads have had plenty of warning and abundance of opportunity to keep well abreast of the development of the country. No condemnation of their failure to do this is likely to be too drastic or to state the facts with serious exaggeration. Even the great Eastern trunk lines, serving a country that has been wealthy and prosperous for two generations, have come far short of showing reasonable foresight and due attention to the strict requirements of a legitimate transportation business. One or two fast trains to Chicago,—at the expense of general demoralization of all the remaining volume of passenger business,—have been about the only thing to which the managers of these roads could point as an example of enterprise. Their general service to the public has declined in efficiency, in a period that has been so prosperous as to have made it easy for a legitimate railroad management to improve all the conditions of service. It is not agreeable to find that the era of great systems has meant shabby equipment and poor service.

*As to
Railroad
Labor.*

So indifferent has our railroad management been to the safety of the public and of its own employees, that nearly all its improved appliances for the preservation of life and health have been forced upon it by national or State action. It would appear that but for the energy of the Government, on the one hand, and the firmness of organization of the groups of railroad employees on the other hand, we should have had our railroads operated by underpaid men working 16 hours a day. Where railroad labor is not organized,—as illustrated by station agents and other men employed at country places along the lines,—the hours of labor continue to be cruelly long, and the rates of payment as a rule are inadequate.

*Congested
Terminals.*

The railroads are no longer able to get their freight cars in and out of the yards and terminals of the larger cities. They cannot get their cars loaded and unloaded or returned to the place where they belong. The business of the country has been to a great extent paralyzed for weeks past on account of what is called the "freight-car famine." Yet freight cars by the hundreds of thousands are standing on side tracks and packed into freight yards, all in one weltering chaos of hopeless mismanagement. We have simply reached the climax of a situation that has been coming on for years, and that could have been met without very serious difficulty. The situation cannot be justified by any honest answer from the business standpoint to the question why railroad facilities should not have kept pace with the growth of other business enterprises. Lack of terminals is hard to excuse.

*Appeals
for New
Capital.*

Now that the situation has become desperate, the railroad magnates are proposing to expend vast sums of fresh capital in making the improvements that they should have been making with energy and foresight and undivided attention during the past 10 or 15 years. They are now with one accord appealing to the public to provide the capital. But the public has been so little in their confidence in years past that it has become frightened. It is not clearly informed as to what has become of the vast amounts of capital that the railroad magnates had already raised within a recent term of years. Furthermore, everything that the railroads must pay for in making the proposed improvements is vastly more

expensive than it would have been a few years ago,—which fact must impose a further burden upon the long-suffering public that the railroad managers continue to exploit. We have much diffusion of prosperity to be thankful for in this country, and we have also some rather heavy burdens to bear. Perhaps the very heaviest of all of these, from a pecuniary standpoint, is the burden that the country suffers in having the railroad system controlled in its own private interest by a plutocratic element incapable of understanding the duties of trusteeship.

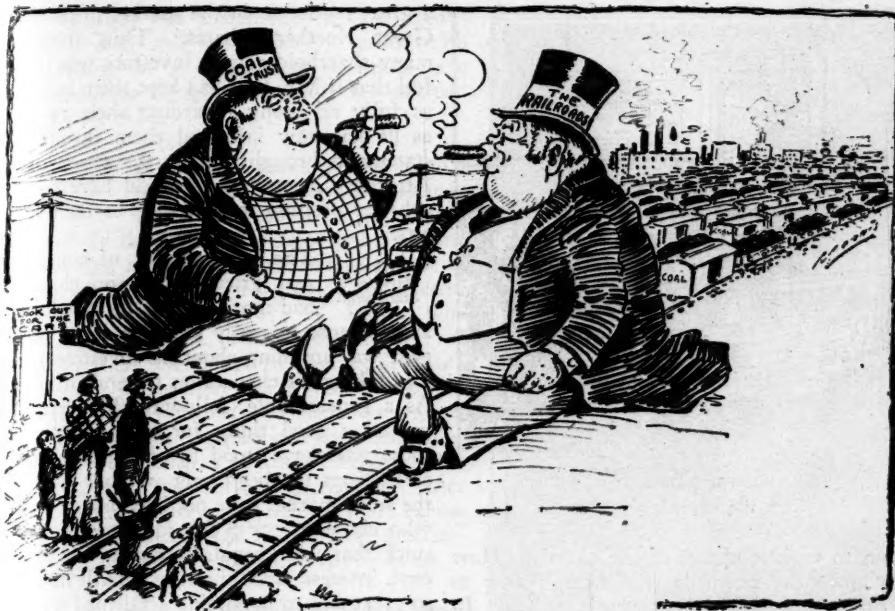
*The Needs
of the
Crisis.*

Mr. James J. Hill, who speaks from the standpoint of a practical and capable railroad administrator, declares that in order to handle properly the existing volume of business without providing for natural increase, the railroad companies of the United States must within five years expend not less than \$5,500,000,000. This must be used to rebuild old lines, provide double tracks, increase terminal facilities, provide more and better cars and locomotives, and, in general, to change outworn roads and bring them up to modern standards. It is something like saying that we have reached a point where we have no railroads except for temporary purposes, and must proceed to construct an entire new system on permanent principles. To obtain proper terminal areas in our large cities, the roads must now pay enormous prices for land that they could have bought cheaply a few years ago. Yet there seems nothing to do but to make the best of a bad situation, and



STALLED.

From the *Chronicle* (Chicago).



IS THIS THE REASON WHY THERE IS A SHORTAGE OF CARS?
From the *Spokesman-Review* (Spokane).

meanwhile to turn on as much light as possible. The public was rudely shocked last year by the exposures of abuse and mismanagement on the part of men entrusted with the control of the funds of great insurance companies. But after all, those abuses were not of a kind that endangered the solvency of the companies, or that seriously affected the pecuniary rights of the individual policyholder. The mismanagement of insurance companies has been a mere passing trifle when compared with the mismanagement of American railroad interests.

objections to government ownership,—and those objections are very great,—it would be better than the indefinite continuance of an irresponsible and uncontrolled private management in the interest of a ring of plutocrats. But we are evidently at the beginning of a period of publicity in railroad affairs. Quite irrespective of the ultimate bearings of the facts, it has been of great importance to secure the information that has already come to light by virtue of the Interstate Commerce Commission's investigation of the control of the Southern Pacific by the Union Pacific.

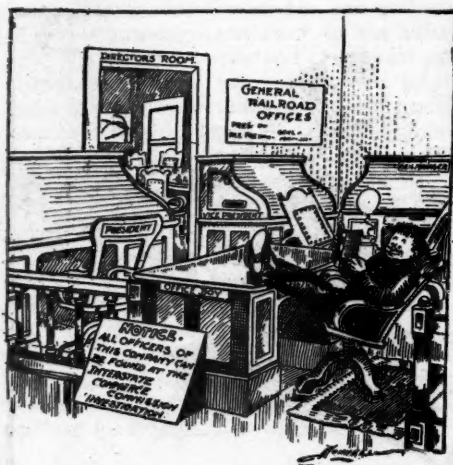
*What
Is to Be
Done?*

It is high time now for the railroad managers to get out of Wall Street, and to operate their roads.

There is not a system in the country at the present moment that has any reason to be especially proud of its achievements. They are all in the market for enormous sums of money with which to make good the defects due to the negligences, the wastes, and the dubious financial transactions of the past. Even where a set of men have managed by strategem and spoliation to capture control of a railroad, and to own actually a majority of its shares of stock, they have not acquired any right to manage that railroad in their own private interest. Whatever may be the

*Turning
on the
Light.*

The inquisitorial energy of the general Government has of late caused a great deal of fluttering in the circles of corporation finance. And there has even been an attempt made to arouse the indignant sympathy of the public on behalf of its real benefactors as against a tyrannical and persecuting Administration. But the public is learning that its real prosperity will not suffer from the attempts of the Government to make the railroads serve the public interest. The activity of the federal Government has had its influence in stirring up the States to a like vigor, and the governors, legislatures, and railroad commissions of a number of States are just now giving atten-



THE RAILROAD MAGNATE OF TO-DAY.
From the *Chronicle* (Chicago).

tion to various phases of the question, How to make the railroads efficient and how to bring them under the control of law. In many of the States the railroads have been actively in politics for a long period and have usually had their own way. It will be good for all interests to have the tables turned. It does not follow that the States will in all cases pursue wise methods; but their assertion of the right to know all the facts and to maintain the full authority of the State government is to be encouraged.

**One Way
to Raise
Money.**

The Great Northern system, of which Mr. Hill is the head, some weeks ago announced an issue of \$60,000,000 of new stock to be sold at par and to be paid for on the installment plan during a period of two years. The Attorney-General of Minnesota has attempted to prevent this issue on the ground that it is in some way likely to add to the burdens of the people who patronize the railroad and from whom its earnings must be derived. From Mr. Hill's point of view it is a commendable method of bringing \$60,000,000 of additional capital into the Northwest to be spent in improving railroad facilities for the benefit of a growing traffic that is now very imperfectly handled. If the money is to be used for such purposes, it will be beneficial to Minnesota and the other Northwestern States, and the Attorney-General's objection ought to be withdrawn. The need, however, of raising so much money came as a surprise to the outside investing public and caused

a great reduction in the market price of the Great Northern shares. Thus there are many shareholders and investors who might feel that if Mr. Hill had kept them informed as fully all along regarding their property as he has now informed them through his statements brought out by the action of the Attorney-General, they would have been in a better position to take care of their interests.

**The
Investor's
Standpoint.**

The investor has, of course, no real grievance, inasmuch as he had not bought his stock with any pretense of really knowing in an intelligent way anything about his investment, and was taking his chances on general principles. As a general rule, following Mr. Hill has proved a good thing for the investor, and those who have stood by their leader faithfully from the beginning without watching the stock market have not been losers. Those who chose to pay \$340 for \$100 shares of stock that were regularly paying only 7 per cent. interest were showing a faith that even so great and so honorable a railroad administrator as Mr. Hill could hardly sustain. The Northern Pacific has followed the Great Northern and has announced a stock issue of \$95,000,000, equal to 60 per cent. of its outstanding stock, also to be sold at par and paid for in installments extended over a period of two years. If this fresh capital is expended carefully in bettering the property and its equipment, the Northwest should regard it in the light of a real benefit, while



MR. HILL'S EXPLANATION OF IT.
"The Northwest has grown too fast for its railroad facilities."
From the *Tribune* (Minneapolis).

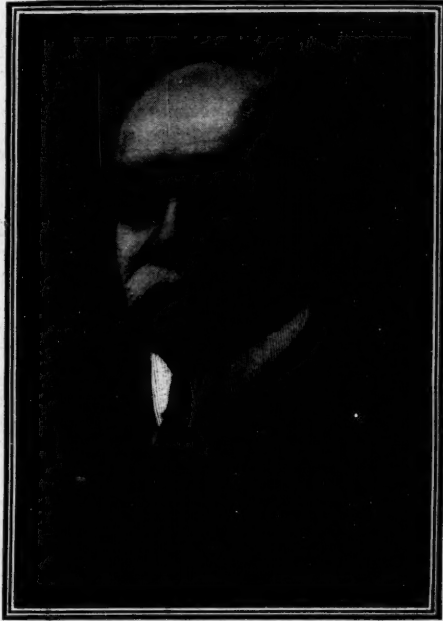
to the *bona fide* stockholder it is a burden and a loss, and the discovery comes with something of a shock that so much new money must be spent to enable the railroad to do its work.

*Conditions
in the
South.*

It is not so much a surprise that the Southern Railway system, which has absorbed a great number of old lines cheaply and poorly built many years ago, should have to spend vast sums of new money in order to provide for present traffic demands. Mr. W. W. Finley, who has succeeded the late Samuel Spencer as president of the Southern, has made frank and open declaration of the desperate condition in which the road now stands as respects its unfitness for the public service demanded of it. The South is in a more rapid process of industrial transformation than any other part of the country, and there is more excuse for the insufficiency of railroads in that section than elsewhere in the North or West.

*Vastness of
Corporation
Interests.*

The installation of Mr. James McCrea as the president of the Pennsylvania system, in consequence of the death of Mr. Cassatt, is followed by the announcement of further great issues of securities, partly for the work of physical reconstruction and partly, it may be supposed, in pursuance of the Pennsylvania's policy of acquisition of additional lines and feeders. The Pennsylvania has now become the most highly capitalized corporation in this country or in the world, except the United States Steel Corporation,—although the Standard Oil Company, with all of its subordinate corporations, would probably at the market value of its shares represent a larger volume of capital. These and other great corporations have become too large and powerful to be controlled in a mysterious way by a small group of men. In their future conduct and control there must be far greater publicity than in the past. It is not to be forgotten that the Steel Corporation has set a good example in this respect, although as it grows every year more solid and more powerful, the public will justly demand an even more extensive knowledge of its conduct and affairs. The needs of the railroads are naturally beneficial to the Steel Corporation. It has just come through its most prosperous year. It is spending \$75,000,000 at Gary, on the Indiana shore of Lake Michigan, not very far from Chicago, in the construction of a new plant; and



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W. W. FINLEY, THE NEW PRESIDENT OF THE SOUTHERN RAILWAY.

this, with many other great improvements, it is making out of surplus earnings.

*The Trusts
Becoming
More Solid.*

Its experimental period seems now to be ended, and the dangers of its original over-capitalization seem to be disappearing through the plan of using the surplus earnings of prosperous years to build up the property. On a less conspicuous scale, it may be said of a number of the so-called industrial trusts, formed some years ago, that they have been pursuing a similar policy. The stock market has adjusted itself to the essential facts, and it has taken its own method of squeezing out the water. Meanwhile, the companies have ceased to try to pay dividends improperly and are protecting their solvency by improving their properties. In this sound and thrifty policy there is great need of constant publicity, because otherwise the inside group of directors and chief officers would fall into the old besetting sins of the railroad magnates, and conduct the business for their private advantage, to the harm of the stockholders. The trust question, like the railroad question, has its changing phases from time to time; but one thing becomes constantly more clear, and that is that all the large

corporations of this country must be managed openly in the interest of the shareholders and the consuming public, and that government oversight and control must be exercised with increasing energy.

*Accidents Due
to Slovenly
Management.*

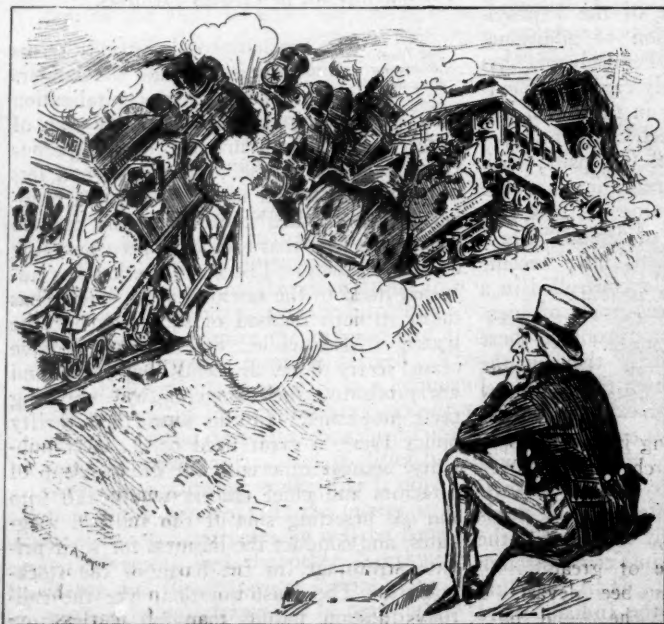
The demoralized condition of the railroad service of the country is chiefly responsible for the great number of railroad accidents, the worst of which are so appalling that they cannot be kept out of the newspapers, while the lesser ones of daily occurrence escape public notice. It has been asserted by high railroad authority that it has become habitual to disregard the cardinal principle of the block system which many roads have installed for purposes of safety, and to this fact must be attributed some of the recent disasters. But the root of the trouble goes much deeper than the recklessness of engineers or the mistakes of signalmen. It lies in the bad management that overworks the train crews, dispatchers, and men on duty in signal towers; that makes regularity in train-running the extreme exception; and that has brought American railroading into the position of being the most slovenly of all our great business organizations, whereas it ought to be the most precise, methodical, and alert. All sorts of business undertakings nowadays have a tendency

to become elaborate, specialized, and highly organized. There was a time when railroad men could carry an air of mystery and treat the public with a certain condescension, as meaning well but not capable of understanding so difficult and so technical a business as operating railroads. But that period is past and gone forever. The veil of mystery has been ruthlessly torn away, and the gentlemen of the railroad world are now in a position where they must put in a decade of hard work in trying to "make good." Meanwhile, there cannot be too many public investigations, and there is no danger of any harm to the traveling public or the shipping public from the doctrine that railroads exist principally for the convenience and the service of the people, and that the people are entitled to have a good railroad system safely and well operated.

*The Lumber
Trust Under
the Probe.*

Last month Senator Kittredge made some very sweeping charges against what he calls the "lumber trust." He asserts that the lumber supply for commercial purposes is now practically controlled and regulated by a combination which has advantages in transportation and which fixes both wholesale and retail prices. It is unquestionably true that lumber for building purposes of all kinds and

grades has within a very short time gone up in the market, without seeming cause or reason, to an astonishing extent. Within a brief period the average price of lumber has more than doubled, and some kinds of lumber have advanced fourfold in the market. It is charged that this condition is due simply and solely to the creation of a practical monopoly. Senator Kittredge's resolution calling upon the Department of Commerce and Labor to make an investigation of the lumber question was promptly passed by the Senate. It is gratifying to feel that the Government now has

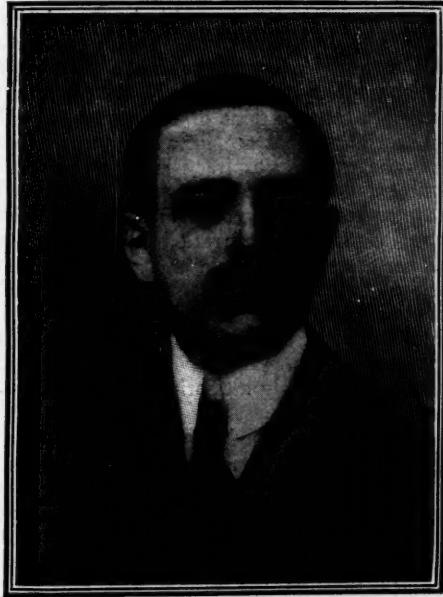


UNCLE SAM: "These railroad mergers are getting to be monotonous."
From the *Herald* (New York).

the means to make such investigations, that it has the energy and ability to do the work promptly, and that it has the confidence and support of the public in such undertakings. Not so very long ago vast tracts of the forest area of this country still belonged to the Government and people of the United States. Through lamentable defects in the land laws, and through criminal connivance and equally criminal neglect in the administration of the laws, the best of these great forests have been passed over from public ownership and control to the ownership of the very group of men forming the lumber trust that Senator Kittredge proposes to investigate.

*The Forests
and the
Public.*

At very small expense a few years ago the national and State governments could have held or acquired enough of the remaining timber belts of the country, not only to protect river sources and mitigate floods, but also to protect the public in its lumber supply and prevent the formation of a monopoly control of so needful an article of general use. The Roosevelt Administration has exerted itself strenuously to create forest reserves and stop the further encroachment of the lumber trust upon the national domain. It has constantly demanded a reform of the land laws, in order to better protect the public interest. Its chief enemy in all this attempt to save the domain of the people from the land thieves and timber thieves has been Congress itself. It is to be hoped that the investigation now invoked by the Senate will be thorough, and that it will shield no public men who have aided and abetted the process of turning the forest lands of the country over to the lumber kings. Whatever may be the objection to the public ownership and operation of practical business enterprises like railroads, there can be no sound argument against the retention by the public of the great forest areas of the upland and mountain regions of the country. The Government itself now possesses far more knowledge of practical forestry than do the lumber people, and by a judicious system of leasing it could supply the lumbermen with merchantable timber without destroying the forests. Great mischief has been done, but the situation is not altogether hopeless; and the proposed investigation will doubtless be of great value. Even where great areas have been devastated by the lumber trust and the wood pulp trust, the nation or the respective States can



HON. HERBERT KNOX SMITH.

(Who succeeds Mr. Garfield as Commissioner of Corporations.)

acquire them and make new forests out of them on scientific principles.

*The
Administration
Is Ready.*

President Roosevelt's views on these subjects are well known. Mr. Hitchcock, as Secretary of the Interior, has stood like a rock for the protection of the public interests. Mr. Garfield, as chief inquisitor of the Department of Commerce and Labor, will succeed Mr. Hitchcock a month hence in charge of the department of which the General Land Office is one of the bureaus. Last month a new Commissioner of the General Land Office was appointed by the President in the person of Mr. Richard A. Ballinger, of Seattle, of which city he has been mayor. Mr. Ballinger is a lawyer and was a classmate of Secretary Garfield in Williams College. Mr. Ballinger will have a great work on his hands, and it is to be hoped that he will prove the right man in the right place. Mr. Garfield's position as chief of the Bureau of Corporations in the Commerce Department is to be filled by the promotion of his assistant, Mr. Herbert Knox Smith. Secretary Straus, at the head of the Commerce Department, is a business man of broad views and a public man of fearless devotion to the general interest as against

private greed. There will be no lack, therefore, of intelligence, skill, courage, and energy on the part of the Administration forces in studying the lumber trust and the questions of timber lands and transportation that are intimately connected with that great conspiracy against the consuming public. It is time for Congress to show as much energy, courage, and intelligence as the Administration shows in preserving the public domain and in abating the evils of trusts and monopolies. The forest reserves that have already been made are a magnificent gift to posterity, and the proposed Appalachian and White Mountain reserves should be promptly authorized by Congress.

The Coal Supply and the Government.

It is to be borne in mind that the monopolizing of the lumber supply to the public detriment has been following the analogy of the monopolizing of the coal supply. The price of anthracite coal to Eastern consumers is permanently doubled through the simple fact that the coal lands of eastern Pennsylvania have been acquired by a group of railroad companies and of men connected with railroad companies, who have combined to control the output of coal, its transportation, and its market price. The enforcement of law will probably compel them to separate their coal business from their railroad business, in formal organization. But it will be very difficult to break up a monopoly that is so profitable, and to bring coal back to its normal price. Similar tendencies have manifested themselves in the great bituminous fields. It is a question to what extent the fearful coal famine that has prevailed for some weeks past in the Northwest, through an almost unprecedented period of extreme cold and heavy snow, has been due to this monopolizing tendency in the coal trade, for which railroad men are chiefly responsible. There are strong assertions and equally strong denials. The inquiries of the Interstate Commerce Commission, when completed, will throw some valuable light upon the subject. Meanwhile, it is dawning upon the public imagination that probably the most statesmanlike act of the year 1906 was the absolute withdrawal from further sale or private disposition of all the coal lands remaining upon the national domain. What this probably signifies as respects the extent and value of the coal lands thus reserved we shall endeavor to show in an article from the pen of a competent authority next month.

Canada and the United States.

The visit of Secretary Root to Lord Grey, Governor-General of Canada, last month, was properly looked upon as a matter of public interest. It came, furthermore, at a highly opportune moment. The Canadians have justly felt that their relations with the United States were of so great importance that the questions concerned require a closer and more intimate diplomatic relationship between the Washington and Ottawa governments than has ever yet existed. They have thought and declared, often, that their interests, in the very nature of things, could not be fully represented at Washington by a British Ambassador who had never lived in Canada, and who naturally looked upon Canadian questions from the British and imperial standpoint rather than from the standpoint of the Dominion. The change of ambassadors at Washington has afforded an occasion for rather emphatic expression of these views in the Canadian newspapers. This went so far as a demand that the British Ambassador at Washington should be a Canadian statesman. A more moderate demand took the form of a suggestion that a Canadian should be attached to the embassy at Washington.

Bryce and Canada.

The appointment of a great British statesman to the ambassadorship has been satisfactory to the Canadians, as it has also been to the people of the United States. Mr. James Bryce has all the qualifications that the most able and accomplished professional diplomat possesses, in addition to which he has many other qualifications, and he comes to Washington as by far the most distinguished and competent public man who has ever represented any foreign government in the United States. Secretary Root, since his entrance upon the work of the State Department, has desired to clear away all outstanding questions of difference that might make future trouble between this country and Canada. The Canadians have great confidence in Mr. Bryce, but they wish to be directly consulted. They know Mr. Root as a man of business and not merely a man of ceremony, and they could rightly feel that his visit to Ottawa was to be taken as an expression on the part of our Government of a desire to have their direct and friendly co-operation in the clearing away of all differences, for the sake of the joint welfare of the neighborly and closely related peoples who are engaged in building up North America. It was, therefore, a timely trip.

Root
on the
tariff.

A few days before Mr. Root went to Canada a great gathering of business men and public men from various States met in Washington under the auspices of the New York Board of Trade and Transportation, to confer upon the best way to promote the foreign commerce of the United States. The President and the members of the cabinet participated in the work of the conference. Mr. Root himself made a speech in which he advocated the adoption by this country of the French and German plan of a maximum and minimum tariff arrangement. Canada has practically this arrangement, giving the benefit of the minimum to England and enforcing the maximum against us. There is certainly a great deal to be said in favor of the double-tariff plan, but its application would seem best to meet the conditions of our trade with European countries. Our trade with our immediate neighbors is of a very different character. It partakes naturally of the conditions of domestic rather than of foreign trade. A number of our large cities are so situated that portions of Canada are naturally tributary to them in a commercial sense. Of all possible questions between the United States and Canada at the present time the tariff is the most important. Those very conditions of the American lumber trade to which we have referred in a previous paragraph demand the removal of the tariff on Canadian forest products. Our consumers ought to be get-

ting Canadian lumber and wood pulp under conditions that would baffle the American trusts. The ideal thing would be absolute commercial union between Canada and the United States, and this would be tremendously beneficial to both countries. But if we cannot have so desirable a thing as full freedom of internal commerce in North America, we ought to have reciprocity with Canada on very broad and generous lines. One thing is certain, and that is that we are approaching a reopening of the tariff question in this country under circumstances which are likely to take it to a great extent out of the old-fashioned field of party controversy.

Waterways
in
Demand.

It is evident that we are also approaching a tremendous revival of interest in the improvement of our internal waterways. The present session of Congress will pass a River and Harbor bill, carrying appropriations of about \$75,000,000. Until very recently the great railroad chieftains have not merely been opposed to the policy of governmental improvement of waterways, but have succeeded in convincing a majority of intelligent people that river and canal transportation was hopelessly out of date, and that railroads should be the sole reliance for all kinds of traffic. Even the friends of waterway improvements had fallen into the habit of using chiefly the argument that waterways could be made to regulate rates. But the railroad Sauls are now among the waterway prophets. The philosophical railroad man now sees that if during the past 25 years there had been a large development of waterways, as in France and Germany, the present pitiable failure of the railroads to meet the demands created by sheer volume of traffic might have been avoided. The heavier and less profitable freight could have gone by water, and the railroads would have had all they could do in hauling the more profitable kinds of merchandise.

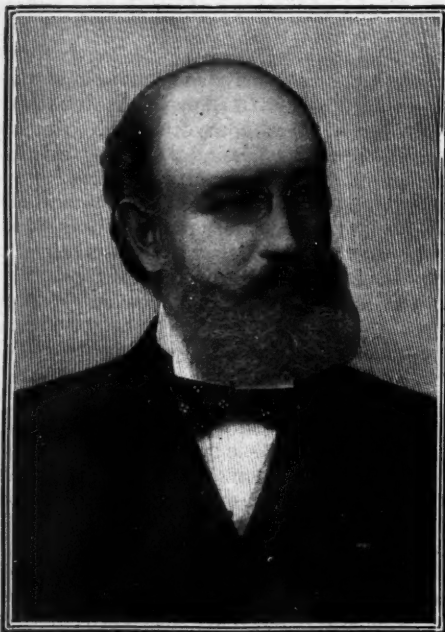
Progress of
Erie Canal
Work.

Two or three years ago the project adopted by the State of New York for enlarging the Erie Canal was regarded by representatives of the New York Central and other railroad interests, and by many able and sincere newspapers, as statesmanship degenerated to the plane of idiocy. But in a very interesting report made the other day to the War Department by a distinguished engineering officer of the army, Colonel Symons, it was de-



THE PRESIDENT HAS RESERVED ALL COAL LANDS ON THE PUBLIC DOMAIN FOR FURTHER SALE.

From the *Post-Intelligencer* (Seattle).



HON. FREDERICK C. STEVENS.

(The new head of the Public Works Department of New York State.)

clared that all opposition to the Erie Canal improvement had disappeared from every quarter. The work is proceeding satisfactorily and honestly. Contracts are being let at figures well within the original estimates. Governor Hughes has appointed the Hon. Frederick C. Stevens, formerly a State Senator, as head of the Public Works Department, and his chief task will be the management of this great undertaking, which is to cost the State of New York \$100,000,000. It changes the small and obsolete Erie Canal into a much larger waterway, with a 12-foot depth of water, capable of floating barges of 1000 tons capacity. The critics several years ago were scorning canal transportation as being too slow; but most parts of the country would have found the canals far more rapid in their service than the railroads have been during the past year. The average movement of freight across the country during the past few months has scarcely exceeded an ox-team rate. The improved Erie Canal, with its access to lakes Erie, Ontario, and Champlain, may be expected to relieve the railroads of a vast deal of heavy traffic. With the tariff changes that are imperatively needed, a great lumber movement from Canada across the

lakes and down the Erie Canal and Hudson should be one of the early developments of the future.

*Prospective
Under-
takings.*

Mr. James J. Hill, who operates great steamships on the lakes and the Pacific, as well as transcontinental railroads, has now declared himself in favor of Mississippi River improvement to the most unlimited extent. The body of public opinion favorable to a great traffic canal from Lake Michigan to the Mississippi steadily increases. The individual States should not expect the general Government to pay all the bills. Chicago and the State of Illinois can just as well afford to create a waterway from Lake Michigan to the Mississippi by enlargement of the Chicago drainage canal as New York can afford to spend \$100,000,000 upon a canal improvement that will benefit the Western farmers far more than it will benefit any class of people in New York. Even in the matter of harbor improvements it would be a far better plan if the cities or States immediately concerned should be expected to pay one-half the bill, and the general Government the other half. Thus Philadelphia, Boston, Baltimore, New York, Galveston, and all other important seaports would have much better harbor facilities in the long run if they shared the expense with the general Government, as in justice they ought to do.

*The Merchant
Marine
Question.*

The Ship Subsidy bill at Washington has been modified by degrees until now it has taken the form of a mail bonus arrangement, to encourage direct communication with South America and to promote our steamship development on the Pacific Ocean. However desirable on many accounts it would be to see the American flag flying in all the ports of the earth, the time is not yet opportune or ripe for the extensive establishment of an American merchant marine. Our capital and labor are still engaged in the highly profitable task of developing the resources of North America. Our foreign trade is important, but it is only incidental to the vast volume of our domestic trade. It is not to our loss, but rather to our great benefit, that the maritime dwellers of Europe, with relatively poor business opportunities on land, are compelled to make their living by doing ocean freighting at low prices. Until we have capital enough available for our most necessary and lucrative railroad improvements our money and our



From the Judge Company.

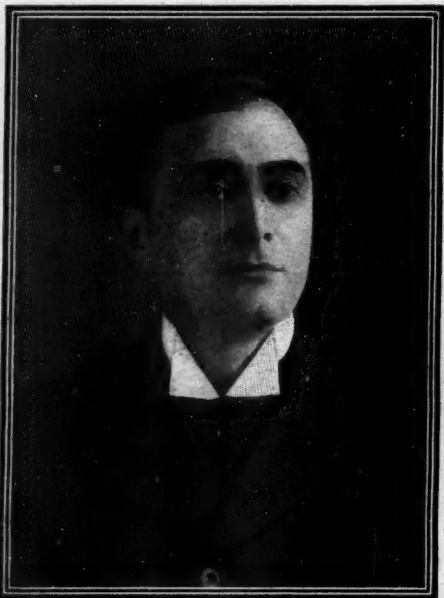
THE HUGE \$1,000,000 DAM, WHICH CLOSED THE 3,000-FOOT BREAK IN THE COLORADO RIVER'S BANK, TO PREVENT THE FURTHER ENLARGEMENT OF THE "SALTON SEA" IN SOUTHERN CALIFORNIA.

energy will not be diverted to ocean transportation, merely for the sentimental pleasure of seeing our flag fly. There are reasons of international statesmanship,—and it is creditable to Mr. Root that he should see them so clearly,—why it would be a very fine thing for us to be trading with South America in a lot of fast ships flying the American flag. But we will not be doing this until after we have finished the Panama Canal and passed through the present strenuous period of internal traffic and transportation development. Interest in Panama Canal affairs centered last month in the opening of the bids tendered under the invitation to American contractors to join the Government in finishing the great undertaking. There were two important bids, and the question of final award was necessarily delayed on account of the complexity of the questions involved.

Gov. Hughes and Electoral Reform.

Since Theodore Roosevelt left the gubernatorial chair at Albany, no Governor's utterances have aroused one-half the interest with which the inaugural message of Governor Hughes was awaited by the people of New York State. It was a new thing in recent New York poli-

tics for a Governor to make specific recommendations to the Legislature without having consulted the recognized "machine" leaders of his party, but the conduct and career of Mr. Hughes before entering office had led the people to expect just such a line of procedure. Over and over again during the campaign and after the election Mr. Hughes had stated explicitly that his whole obligation as a public officer was to the people, the whole people, and not to any clique of party managers. The bosses who were not convinced of his sincerity in that utterance before he took office are doubtless fully assured of it now. The measures recommended by Governor Hughes to the Legislature for favorable consideration and action included electoral reform and specific and radical changes in the State's policy with reference to public-service corporations. If any portion of the message could be characterized as sensational it was that concerning the recount of the votes cast in the New York mayoralty election of 1905. From the day of that election to the present hour, thousands of New York voters of all parties have believed,—whether rightly or wrongly,—that William R. Hearst was really elected



Photograph by Marceau, N. Y.

HON. WILLIAM S. JACKSON, OF BUFFALO.
(Attorney-General for New York State.)

Mayor of New York City, and that his opponent, George B. McClellan, occupies his seat through the exercise of fraud in the canvass of the ballots. Application had been made to the Republican Attorney-General of the State for proceedings to test Mayor McClellan's title to his office, but the application had been denied. Governor Hughes now recommends that the Legislature immediately provide for a recount of the votes, that hereafter the courts be empowered to order recounts, and that power to authorize suits for testing titles to office be taken from the Attorney-General and conferred on the courts. The fact that the passage of such legislation would give justice to his own opponent in the contest for the governorship last fall only serves to demonstrate the inherent fairness and non-partisanship of the position taken by the new Governor. His further recommendations, it should be noted, in the direction of limiting the expenditures of candidates and empowering court review of fraudulent exclusion of delegates from political conventions, would operate directly against the practices which discredited Mr. Hearst's campaign of last year. In the meantime, Attorney-General Jackson, who was elected on the Hearst ticket, at once began proceedings to oust Mayor McClellan.

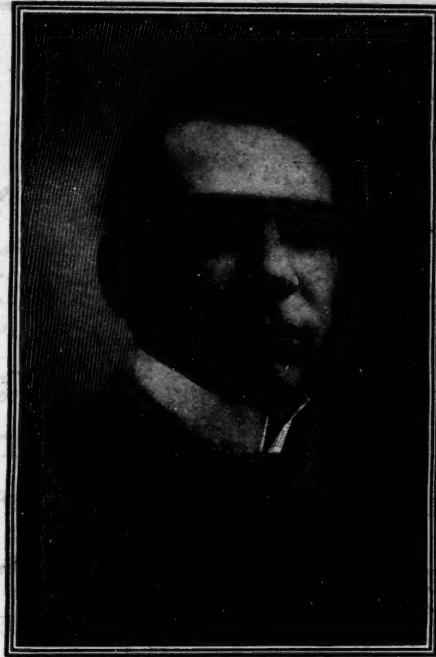
*A Business
Administration
for New York.*

Other recommendations made by Governor Hughes were quite as disconcerting to the old-time politicians as anything that he said about electoral reform. The State Railroad Commission of New York has long been an unwieldy and inefficient bureau, the refuge of political hacks whose salaries were paid by the railroads themselves. The Governor recommends the abolition of this useless body, as well as of the present Commission of Gas and Electricity, and the creation of a new board with real authority, whose salaries shall be paid by the State and whose jurisdiction shall include all the public-service corporations. He makes a similar recommendation regarding the Rapid Transit Commission of New York City,—not that the last named commission has ever reached the state of uselessness that has long characterized the State commission, but solely in the interest of greater practical efficiency as an administrative body. The appointments thus far made by Governor Hughes in the State's service have been admirable. For State Superintendent of Public Works, the official who will have direct charge of the expenditure of \$103,000,000 for the enlarged Erie Canal, he has selected ex-Senator Frederick C. Stevens, a man of independent fortune and recognized business capacity. Here again, as in all his other acts since taking office, Governor Hughes has studiously ignored the behests of the machine politicians. The appointment of Charles H. Keep as Superintendent of Banks further emphasized the Governor's determination to place in positions of public trust responsible and worthy men without regard to political considerations in the narrow and accustomed sense.

*State
Legislation—
New Features.*

It was remarked in these pages last month that officials of the general Government at Washington would be glad to see some of the States more energetic in the prosecution of certain lines of administrative work that properly falls within their province. Developments in many of the States since those words were written tend to give assurance that, so far from abdicating their functions, these State governments are more active and energetic than ever before. This is particularly noticeable in the case of certain activities that the public has lately associated with the federal rather than the State governments. We have now come to think of railroad-rate regulation, for example, as a national question, and

yet the State legislatures this winter are doing more in the direction of rate legislation than for many years past. There is a general movement for the restriction of railroad passenger fares to two cents a mile. Bills for this purpose have been introduced in the legislatures of New York, Delaware, North Carolina, Missouri, Minnesota, Kansas and Nebraska. The Governors of Michigan and Nebraska have discussed the subject in their annual messages. It is also to be noted that "anti-pass" legislation, which began a few years ago in Wisconsin and was then considered a radical innovation, is now discussed not only in the Middle West but in some of the Eastern and Southern States as well. The Governors of New Hampshire, West Virginia, Nebraska and Montana have thought it worth while to allude to the subject at some length in their messages. It was, of course, to be expected that insurance would have a prominent place in the State legislation of the current season, and we find recommendations on the subject in the messages of most of the Middle Western Governors, while bills have been introduced in the New England State legislatures. The pure food question is attracting much attention in the West, and it is also discussed by the Governor of West Virginia.



HON. WILLIAM ALDEN SMITH.
(Michigan's Senator-elect.)

*Taxing and
Regulating the
Corporations.*

Taxation has always occupied a large proportion of the time of our State legislatures, and of late years the propositions advocated by Governors and tax commissions have been increasingly radical. A few years ago the reforms advocated by Governor LaFollette, of Wisconsin, had little support beyond the borders of that State, but at the present time, to judge from the recommendations of Governors Folk, of Missouri, and Johnson, of Minnesota, public opinion has advanced to a point where most of the LaFollette measures seem fairly conservative. Thus, Governor Johnson dwells at length on the immense mineral wealth of his State, which the steel trust is now exploiting, while the State of Minnesota has received in the form of taxation but a mere pittance. The most advanced position taken by any of the States thus far on the question of an income tax is that indicated by Governor Davidson, of Wisconsin, who, it will be remembered, was supported at his election last fall by the so-called conservative element of Wisconsin's Republicans as distinct from the LaFollette régime. Governor Davidson declares that

such a tax is unsurpassed as a leveler of the public burden, and that it most nearly satisfies, with proper enforcement, the conception of an ideal tax. He urges the passage of the constitutional amendment providing for such a tax. This form of taxation is also advocated by Governor Dawson, of West Virginia. Among the first States to follow the lead of New York in adopting a system of regulation of public-service corporations are Michigan and Wisconsin. In these, as in other populous American commonwealths, the electric-railroad corporations have obtained valuable franchises and become increasingly powerful in the business world without attracting the attention of the State governments. It is now realized that some form of regulation is a necessity, and the people are looking to their State governments to perform this function. Not only do the Governors of some of these States advocate such regulation through State commissions, but both Governor Folk, of Missouri, and Governor Davidson, of Wisconsin, come out squarely in favor of municipal ownership, and such utterances are no longer regarded as sensationally radical.



JAMAICA AND ITS RELATION TO THE OTHER WEST INDIES.

The Kingston Earthquake.

The third of the terrible earthquake visitations to afflict populous cities during the past 10 months practically destroyed the city of Kingston, Jamaica, last month. The first shock, which was the most destructive one, occurred at 3.30 in the afternoon of Monday, the 14th. Other shocks followed. There was great destruction of buildings, and it is known that 1700 lives were lost. For several days there was a serious shortage of food and medical supplies, but official and private generosity was immediate and effective. As at San Francisco and Val-

paraiso, fire almost immediately followed upon the first tremors of the earth, and scenes of horror and destruction indescribable ensued. The buildings in the city resembled in construction those of San Francisco rather than those of Valparaiso, and the entire business section suffered severely. There was comparatively little disorder, and it is gratifying to note the fact that American sailors assisted British regulars and native soldiers in guarding the destitute survivors and the ruined buildings. Most of the fine hotels and public buildings were completely destroyed, and for four nights the city was in darkness. Governor Sir James A. Swettenham, assisted by such officials and courageous private

citizens as had escaped injury, at once instituted measures of relief for the sufferers. Two British warships at once hurried with aid, and supplies from Admiral Evans' warships, which had been stationed at Guantanamo, Cuba, were promptly made use of. The loss of life among the white citizens was comparatively light, and no deaths were reported of American tourists, many of whom visit Jamaica at this season of the year. Most of the water front of the city was destroyed, including the fine docks of the Hamburg-American and Royal Mail Steam Packet companies. Kingston,



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A VIEW OF KINGSTON HARBOR—PORT ROYAL.

a city of 60,000 inhabitants, suffered most severely from the earthquake, which, however, was severely felt also at Port Royal and Port Antonio, other points on the island. Port Royal, which is a heavily fortified post, lost many guns and batteries from the sinking of the beach line after the shock. The calamity may so alter the shore line as to take from Kingston's harbor its proud title of being one of the finest in the world.

*Jamaica in the
Earthquake
Belt.*

At many other widely scattered points of the earth's surface earthquake tremors were noted at about the same time as the shock at Kingston. Distinct earthquake manifestations were felt at points in Russia, Norway and Sweden, and in several different sections of the United States. While there may not be, as is insisted by earthquake specialists, any definite, close connection between earthquake shocks and volcanic action, it is a significant and important fact that while these earth tremors are occurring the old volcanoes of Etna in Sicily, Mauna Loa in Hawaii, and several lesser known peaks in South America have resumed sending forth lava after many years of quiet. While the destruction of life and property in Kingston is no doubt very great, the rest of the island of Jamaica is apparently uninjured by the quake, and the great fertility of its soil and the mildness of its climate will prevent any serious suffering for food. The banana crop of the island is reported absolutely uninjured. Jamaica, which is a British possession, is an island a little smaller than the State of Connecticut, with a population of 640,000 (approximately that of the State of Maine), lying 90 miles south of Cuba. It has had a checkered, stormy history, including many earthquake visitations, and has figured in a number of the tragic scenes of exploration and conquest since the day of Columbus. The soil is of volcanic origin, and several mountain chains traverse the island. Jamaica is the nearest European-held possession to the Panama Canal.

*Our Relations
with Mexico and
South America.*

The South-American journey of Secretary Root and his several notable speeches on openings for American trade in the southern continent have attracted a good deal of attention to the commercial and economic possibilities of all Latin-America. Mineral and agricultural wealth of almost unimaginable extent, with unlimited water-power to develop it, lie al-



EUROPE'S SUSPICIONS.

Dame Europe to the South American nations: "Be careful, young ladies, of that old beau (Uncle Sam). He is a stranger and perhaps not to be trusted."—From *Caras y Caretas* (Buenos Ayres).

most unworked in the South-American plains and mountains. And yet, even to-day, the era of manufacturers has set in. Our readers will find on page 177 a comprehensive article on this subject by two students of South-American conditions who have already contributed other articles to these pages. American merchants are now awakening to the opportunities in trade with these republics and before many years we shall have steamship lines to South-American ports, which will make it impossible for any future Secretary of State to declare, as Mr. Root did recently, that the best way to send a letter to South America is to send it first to London,—for "to-day, not one American steamship company runs to any Latin-American port beyond the Caribbean." The appointment of Mr. John Barrett to the post of Director of the Bureau of American Republics indicates an intention on the part of our Government to take up in earnest the reorganization of our commercial relations with the countries south of the Isthmus. Mr. Barrett's experience in dealing with Latin-American governments and peoples will be invaluable in his new position. Our relations with Mexico continue on the most cordial footing, and it is believed in Washington, as well as in Mexico City, that the appointment of Señor Enrique Creel, who is not only an accomplished diplomat but a successful busi-

ness man, thoroughly familiar with American as well as Mexican life, to be Ambassador to this country, will be useful in strengthening these ties of friendship.

*Mr. Root's
Visit to
Ottawa.*

Secretary Root's visit to Canada, which began with his arrival at Ottawa on the morning of January 19 to pay his respects to Governor-General Earl Grey and to discuss informally questions of common interest to the peoples of both countries, now seems such a perfectly natural and proper thing to do that the only wonder is it was not done before. Of course, the foreign policies of the Dominion must be conducted from London, and it is not even certain as yet,—although repeatedly announced in the newspapers,—that Ambassador Bryce will have a Canadian aide at Washington. Much, however, can be done in the way of finding out just how governments and peoples stand. For some time our Northern neighbors have felt, as a prominent Dominion statesman recently insisted in Parliament, that Canadians owe British statesmen nothing, "save our forgiveness as Christian men for the atrocious blunders which have marked every treaty, transaction, or negotiation they have ever had with the United States, where the interests of Canada were concerned, from the days of Benjamin Franklin to this hour."

*Our
Differences
with Canada.*

Secretary Root's talks with Earl Grey and Premier Laurier will no doubt result in great benefit to both Canadians and Americans. In 1897 a determined effort was made to clear up all differences between the two peoples, and the famous Joint High Commission was appointed for their consideration. Meeting in Quebec in August, 1898, and continuing in session in Quebec and Washington until February, 1899, the commission accomplished much in the way of discussion; but no official meetings have been held since the last-named date, and since then the issues have remained in what might be termed a state of suspended animation. The most important of the issues considered by the Joint High Commission has now been settled,—the Alaskan Boundary Question, determined by a special tribunal, in London, in September, 1903. The problems remaining unsolved include deep-water sealing, Atlantic and Lake fisheries, including whaling in Hudson Bay; the bonding of American merchandise in transit through Canada and of Canadian merchandise through the United

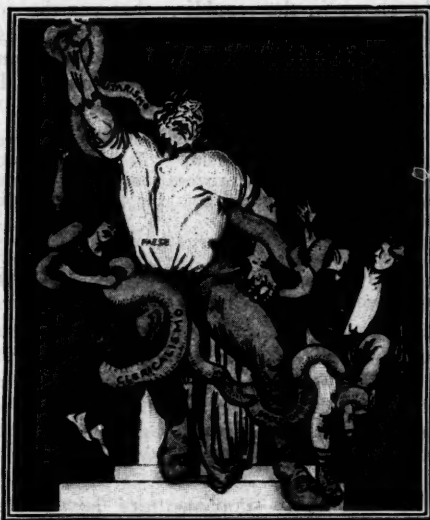
States, alien labor legislation, warships on the Great Lakes, the preservation of Niagara Falls, the much-discussed question of trade reciprocity, and the new postal treaty. The last-named problem will demand speedy solution, since the Ottawa government has already announced that, on May 7 next, it will abrogate the present postal convention concerning second-class matter. Canada's earnestness in the preservation of Niagara Falls is indicated by her recent decision to put an export duty on electric power.

*Canada's
Pressing
Problems.*

Canadian domestic problems are of an economic nature. The Dominion Parliament is now busy with its newly revised tariff and with labor legislation. The bill introduced early in January by Minister of Labor Lemieux, for the prevention of strikes and lockouts, provides for a board of investigation, absolutely forbidding any such demonstration during the period of investigation by this board. The Dominion now, as well as ourselves, has a Japanese labor problem on its hands, and in British Columbia, it is reported, the anti-Japanese feeling is running high. The present Canadian tariff schedules give a preference to Great Britain and concede nothing to this country. It is true that we have never been very accommodating to Canada in matters of trade. The commercial interests of the two peoples, however, are almost identical, and artificial political barriers cannot long stand in the way of the obvious and natural business intercourse between them. The needs of the two peoples are similar, their intercourse of necessity more frequent, their tastes almost alike, and their social, religious, and business interests constantly increasing. A few hours at most separate the commercial centers of the two countries, and a trip from one to the other incurs no more expense or time than would a trip from one State to another. It takes weeks to get a shipment from England or Germany to Canada, as compared with a few days at most to get it across the line. There is no doubt that a spirit of fairness toward the United States is growing up among the Canadian people that is far more powerful than any law placing British goods under preferential tariff. Canada's grand old man, Lord Strathcona, who has been the Dominion High Commissioner in London for the past decade, is now in his eighty-seventh year. Press dispatches late in January asserted that he had determined to resign.

The
British
Parliament.

King Edward's message pro-roguing the British Parliament until February 2, was read to both Lords and Commons on December 21. While much was accomplished during the first session under the Liberal ministry, considerable disappointment is expressed that the main project of the Campbell-Bannerman government, the Birrell Education bill, failed of passage. Unable to accept the radical amendments to this measure made by the upper house, the ministry, on December 20, announced in the House of Commons the withdrawal of the bill. This does not mean abandonment of the measure; it simply means that another bill will be framed and presented at another session. The Lords, contrary to expectations, actually passed the Trade Disputes bill. It is not thought likely that an Irish home-rule measure will be brought in during the session now about to open, since Mr. Bryce's transfer from the Secretaryship of Ireland to the British embassy at Washington involves the indefinite postponement of Irish legislation. No one but Mr. Bryce could have properly brought in an administrative Home-Rule bill. Other measures of importance passed by the session just closed are: the Workmen's Compensation bill, the Merchant Shipping bill, the Irish Laborers' Act amendment, the Commercial Corruption bill, and the Colonial Marriages bill. Besides killing the Birrell Education measure, the Lords also threw out the proposition of the Commons for the abolition of plural voting. Although considerable activity in the woman's suffrage campaign marked the last session of Parliament, no real progress in the direction of this reform has been recorded. Those Americans who have been so accustomed in recent years



THE FRENCH PEOPLE AND THE CHURCH—AN ANTI-CLERICAL VIEW.

Millitarism and Clericalism strangling the peasant (the modern Laocoon).—From *Asino* (Rome).

to see reports of England's commercial decadence will be interested to learn that the year 1906 was the record year for British trade. For the first time in the history of the empire Britain's commerce not only reached but exceeded the vast total of \$5,000,000,000.

The French
Republic and
the Church.

In the struggle between the French Government and the Vatican, the situation has reached what the French call an *impasse*—a deadlock. By a vote of three to one, (413 to 166 to be exact) in the French Parliament, the present government has been sustained in its new bill, and the recent elections show that the people are with their representatives. Government and people have determined upon the separation of church and state. The Pope, on the other hand (if we can trust the cabled versions of one of his recent encyclicals), maintains: "that the state must be separated from the church is a thesis absolutely false, a most pernicious error." This evidently, then, is the issue, and methods or manner are of secondary importance. Meanwhile, the faithful Catholics in France are completely at sea. A few declarations of intentions to hold meetings under the regular law have been made and a few ecclesiastics fined merely nominal sums for violation, but, in the main, the position of



THE FRENCH GOVERNMENT AND THE CHURCH—A CLERICAL VIEW.

GENDARME (to evicted, destitute priest): "Now, I am going to arrest you as a tramp."—By the famous cartoonist Forain, in the *Figaro* (Paris).

the clergy in the republic, whatever the desires of the individual may be, is that of passive resistance, or, in the words of the conclave of bishops held at the Château de la Muette on January 15:

The development of events must be awaited. In the meanwhile worship will continue provisionally, without provocation and without yielding. No arrangements for the future will be made, and the new laws will be simply ignored. The parish priests will leave their churches only on compulsion and on the advice of the bishop. The priests will not take the initiative.

The Paris government must turn to Rome, say the bishops. At this meeting questions of public worship, of funds, the support of the clergy, and the maintenance of seminaries and private schools were considered,—with what result is not as yet known.

*The Law
as It
Now Stands.*

The supplementary law to the original measure of 1905 was passed in both houses of Parliament before the beginning of the present year, the Senate adopting the measure exactly as it came from the Chamber of Deputies by a vote of 190 to 100. President Fallières signed the law on January 2. As this measure will be referred to constantly and commented upon in the daily press, as well as in future issues of this magazine, we give a detailed summary of its provisions:

Article 1.—Independently of the associations contemplated by the law of December 9, 1905, public worship can be held by means of associations under the law of July 1, 1901, as well as in virtue of the Public Meetings law of June 30, 1881, under individual initiative.

Article 2.—Even in default of the cultural associations provided for by the law of December 9, 1905, the use of edifices intended for worship, as well as the furniture contained therein, shall remain at the disposition of the faithful and of the clergy for the practice of their religion. The free use of the churches may be accorded either to associations formed under the law of 1901 or to clergy designated under the declarations prescribed by the law of 1905. This usage, however, shall be made under the conditions stated in the last-mentioned law, by means of an administrative act either by the prefect, for the property placed under sequester, when such property belongs to the state or departments, or by the mayor when it belongs to the communes. The above-mentioned regulations will apply to edifices intended for worship, which, having belonged to ecclesiastical establishments, have been assigned by decree to charitable institutions under the law of 1905.

Article 3.—With the promulgation of the present law the state, the departments, and the communes will recover the free use of the episcopal mansions, presbyteries, seminaries, etc., which are their property, and the use of which

has not been claimed by an association formed under the law of 1905. At the same time lodging indemnities, falling upon communes where there is no presbytery, will cease.

Article 4.—The property of ecclesiastical establishments not claimed by associations constituted under the law of 1905 will be assigned, upon the promulgation of this act, to charitable institutions, as provided by said law, without prejudice to assignments which may be made concerning property not dedicated to public worship.

Article 5.—At the expiration of one month after the enactment of the present law allowances made under the law of 1905 to the clergy who have failed to carry out the requirements of that law will be suppressed. The failure of members of the clergy to fulfill the requirements of the law will in each case be determined by a joint decision of the Minister of Justice and the Minister of Finance.

Article 6.—All the provisions of the law of 1905 will remain in full force, in so far as they are not in contradiction with the present act.

*M. Briand
Defends the
Measure.*

In defending the bill Premier Clémenceau characterized the present situation by saying that France is "now grappling with difficulties that no government has experienced since 1870." M. Briand, Minister of Public Worship, presented the bill, and set forth the attitude and purposes of the government in these words:

The situation is not disturbing. Separation is accomplished already. The churches are open. There is no religious budget. The priests are not functionaries of the state. The country is calm. We have the consciousness of having the entire country with us. To enter into negotiations with Rome would be to plunge the country into civil war. Rome wanted persecution, hoping in that way to revive faith. Systematically we have met her measures. Whatever her moves we will not fall into her traps. We have given the church liberty, to which the Protestant and Jewish churches have readily conformed. The Right wishes only one thing,—that we close the churches. This we shall never do. We shall continue our work with calm confidence.

This new law has been recognized, generally, as a compromise in some respects. The Vatican, however, declares it just as impossible of acceptance as the law of 1905.

*The
Vatican
Replies.*

At the same time as a note of protest was sent to the representatives of foreign powers against the arrest of Mgr. Montagnini, referred to in these pages last month, the Papal Secretary of State announced the position of the hierarchy in a statement of which the following are the main points:

The text of the new French Government bill is inspired by the same principles as the former

acts of the Clémenceau cabinet,—namely, the maximum of oppression with the minimum of appearance. In fact, the bill aggravates in the hardest manner the former position of the church in everything without its being apparent to the general public. . . . The Separation law is regarded as unacceptable by the church, while it is clear that M. Briand's recent circular, as well as his other two circulars, is not applicable to public worship, having been drawn up for the regulation of the meetings of other kinds of associations. In short, the Separation law, M. Briand's recent circular, and the new bill are only three forms of the same conception,—that of enslaving and compromising the church, while at the same time enabling the government to allege that it did everything in its power to find a way out of the difficulties, but was unable to do so because of the systematic tenacity of the Holy See. The Holy See will not desist from its present attitude until a bill is presented containing as a minimum to be tolerated an acknowledgment of the essential rights of the church, beginning with the Catholic hierarchy, which is the divine foundation of the organization of the church.

An Encyclical to the World.

The Catholics of France and of the world in general who expected definite directions or advice from Rome were disappointed in the encyclical of January 11, in which Pope Pius reiterates his intention of not yielding to the French law, and declares that the Paris government is waging war, not only against the Christian faith, but against every supernatural idea. The republic, he declares, has forced the church to submit to the spoliation of its property, and the church has been unable to accept the conditions imposed for the keeping of it. The annual declaration exacted by the Separation law for the privilege of holding reunions for public worship, the encyclical declares further, does not offer any legal guaranty, arbitrary power being given to the mayors of cities in granting such permission. The law in its latest form the Pope condemns as "unqualified confiscation, pure and simple." The minimum concessions necessary to the acceptance of this law on the part of the Vatican are explicitly enumerated as: "Respect for the Catholic hierarchy, which is an indispensable characteristic of Catholicism; the inviolability of church property, which should depend upon the hierarchy, and freedom of action." In these contentions the Vatican is not to be accused of inconsistency on the score of the separation existing in Germany, Great Britain, and the United States. Although the condition in these countries is open to criticism from the papal standpoint, the governments in question recognize the Catholic hierarchy, which the French law

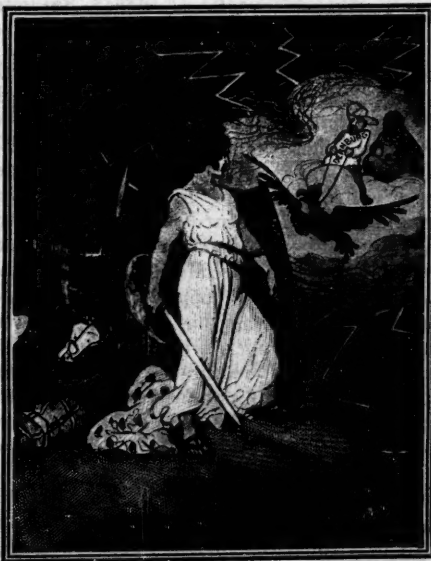
does not. That, indeed, is the crux of the whole question.

Will a New French Church Result?

What will be the result of this cruel uncertainty to which the French clergy are now subjected? They would wish to remain faithful Catholics and patriotic Frenchmen, but the present situation forces them to either violate the laws of their country or disregard the explicit directions of their spiritual head. It is being reported with increasing persistency in the press dispatches from Paris that a new national Catholic French church is about to be organized as the only solution of the present difficulty. The country is quiet, but in earnest. The vast majority of Frenchmen are still Catholic, but each day would seem to make it clearer that they firmly support the government and regard the present issue as having nothing whatever to do with religious persecution, but simply as a question whether or not the Holy See at Rome has the right to regulate the internal affairs of French Catholics.

The German Election Campaign.

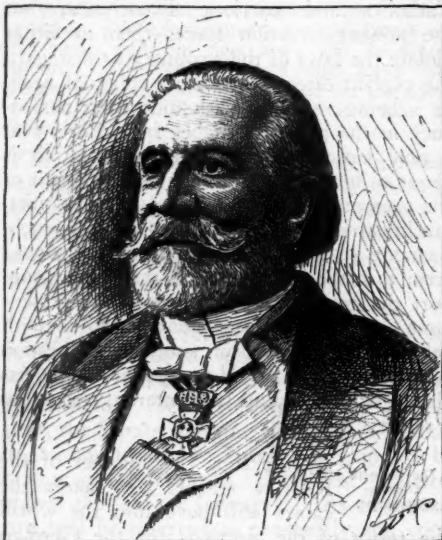
By the time this number of the REVIEW reaches its readers the cables will have told the world the result of the elections for the German Reichstag, which were set for January 25



BULOW, DERNBURG, AND THE GERMAN COLONIES.

"Peoples of Africa, Defend Your Sacred Rights."
(An election poster in Germany reproduced from *Wahre Jacob* (Stuttgart). With apologies to Kaiser Wilhelm for similarity to his famous cartoon addressed to Europe.

The imperial Parliament, it will be remembered, was dissolved on December 13, because of its refusal to pass the supplementary budget for Germany's colonial expenses asked for by the Minister of the Colonies in the name of the Emperor. The government



PROF. ERNST VON BERGMANN.

(The world-famous German surgeon, who has just celebrated his seventieth birthday.)

then broke with the Center, or Clerical group, a party upon which it had depended for some time to carry out its favored policies. Whether Chancellor von Bulow's efforts to form a new national democratic party will be successful in bringing about a group of government supporters strong enough to offset whatever gains may be made by the Center, the Socialists, and the Poles,—who are always in opposition,—it is evident that all Germany has been aroused over the matter and much criticism expressed at the Chancellor's recent manifesto calling upon all patriotic Germans to put down socialism. It was widely believed that in return for parliamentary support of his colonial project, so eloquently defended by the new Colonial Minister, Herr Dernburg, the Kaiser would give the Radicals the desire of their heart by redressing their principal grievance,—that is, the indirect and extremely complicated method of choosing members of the Prussian Chamber of Deputies, a method which has been unfair to the minor parties, largely composed of men with no property

qualification. During all this heated political campaign the German people, true to their national character, have been paying tribute to the great surgeon Ernst von Bergmann, who, on December 19, celebrated his seventieth birthday. This great German, who has contributed more to the development of surgery than any other living man, served through the wars between Prussia and Austria, Germany and France, and Russia and Turkey. Since 1882 he has occupied a chair in the University of Berlin. Dr. von Bergmann's chief contributions to surgery are aseptic bandaging and surgical treatment of diseases of the brain.

On the eve of the assembling of the first Russian Duma, Czar Nicholas issued a ukase promulgating the so-called Fundamental Law of the empire, the net result of which was to greatly restrict the jurisdiction and privileges of Parliament. Now that the campaign is on for election to the second Duma, he is pursuing the same policy. By imperial order the administration of the government has been so reorganized that the Emperor himself becomes president of the Council of Imperial Defense, a new body, which will absorb the activities of the ministries of war and marine. These ministries are abolished. By this means, no matter what the power of the Duma may be in matters of the purse and internal political administration, military and naval affairs are declared beyond its competence. Courts-martial will be continued, and the exile, imprisonment, execution, flogging, and other methods of "pacification" so well known in Russia will go on as heretofore. Just how far this "chaos of pacification" has progressed may be seen from a summary in a recent issue of the law journal *Pravo*, which we quote on another page this month. The Terrorist calendar for January and late December included the assassination of Count Ignatiev, member of the Council of the Empire, leader of the court Reactionary party, and one of the most detested of the supporters of the monarchy; General Launitz, commandant of the palace, who had been the virtual successor of the detested Trepov; General Litvinov, Governor of the Siberian province of Akmolinsk; Colonel Andriev, chief of police of Łódź; and General Pavlov, military procurator. The terrorism of the government is being met with a swift, merciless, and persistent terrorism on the part of the revolutionaries.

The "Chaos of
Pacification"
in Russia.



THE RUSSIAN IMPERIAL FAMILY, FROM A PHOTOGRAPH TAKEN AT CHRISTMAS TIME.

(The little Czarewitch, the Grand Duke Alexis, youngest of the children and heir to the throne, is the second from the left in this picture.)

*Elections for
the Second
Duma.*

The elections are to be held on February 19. It is interesting to note that a number of the features of the American and Australian voting systems will be used in the balloting. Closed booths for secret voting and official ballots will be employed. Electioneering is prohibited in the vicinity of the polls, but the official ballots, on which are printed the nominees of the legalized political parties (the Octobrists, the Monarchists, and the Peaceful Regenerationists), may be distributed freely. The Constitutional Democrats (Cadets) and the other opposition parties are denied this privilege, and their partisans will be forced to write out their ballots individually,—a proceeding which will no doubt lead to the rejection of many votes on account of technical irregularities. The concessions to the Jews apparently amount to very little beyond permitting them to leave the Pale, and reside in all parts of the empire. The entire Jewish question is left to the Duma for settlement.

*What
Stolypin
Has Done.*

Whether or not the Stolypin ministry has succeeded in really pacifying the country, it has, fair-minded critics will admit, certainly taken more than one step in the direction of constitutional government. A semblance of order has been established throughout the empire, and Russia's foreign credit has considerably bettered during the five months of Mr. Stolypin's term of office. While it is no doubt true that the Premier can be criticised for woeful mismanagement and lack of judgment, nevertheless (says Dr. E. J. Dillon in his monthly Russian letter in the *Contemporary Review*),

Without either making laws or breaking them he has radically changed the statute book, has reformed the condition of the peasants by a series of measures which will ultimately revolutionize the Russian people, has incorporated liberty of conscience in the legislation, has bettered the lot of the workingmen, has introduced one day of rest in seven for clerks and shop assistants without lessening the number of annual holidays, and over and above all, has trampled out the embers of the organized revolution.

How He
Has
Failed.

Some of the more astute Russian politicians, however, insist that the government has failed, and ascribe this failure to Stolypin's legal quibbles and "paper projects," which, for practical effect upon the Russian people, have no more executive force than any newspaper. "They remain simply printed matter, and the bureaucrats throughout the empire continue to exercise their unfettered will as of old." It is true that the budget for 1907, as presented on January 11 by Finance Minister Kokovtsev, indicates an increasing revenue and a condition of finances which will permit the early redemption of some of the short-term bonds now held in France. In reality, however, close examination will show that the figures have been cleverly manipulated. The St. Petersburg government is actually very hard pressed for money, and, unfortunately, is unable to collect the great arrears in taxes throughout the empire. This is indicated by the circular recently issued to all governors of provinces and commissioners of taxes, closing with the following statement: "The populace must be compelled to obey the law, and the stubbornness of the tax defaulters must be broken by all legal measures, however harsh and strict they may be." The serious conservative review, the *Vyestnik Yevropy*, commenting on this statement, observes that, although Russian law does not permit of force being used with tax defaulters, force nevertheless will be used. The refusal to pay taxes "depends at times on political considerations, and, in order to root out some of these adverse political opin-

ions, the administration never feels under restraint of the law." For inactivity in collecting arrears in taxes the circular threatens prosecution of the most extraordinary kind, which may lead to popular disturbances, particularly "when it is well known that no such strict measures will be taken against the landlords, whose arrears in taxes are even larger than those of the peasants."

Sufferings
of the
Peasants.

In the meantime the peasants are starving and freezing in many provinces. In making an appeal to the people of Europe and America for assistance, Mr. Nikolai Shivkov, one of the Russian Liberals, said (early in December):

Once more the crops have failed completely in all the southeastern provinces, and in many others the harvest has been far below the average. The immediate cause was nearly the same,—a hot spring and summer and no rain. In hundreds of villages the distress is already beyond endurance. Thousands of peasants are eating nothing but bread made of acorn-flour and grass seeds mixed with a little rye flour; many families eat even that bitter bread only once a day. The winter has barely commenced, so that two or three months must elapse before the famine attains its full intensity; and yet a fortnight ago the newspapers published an account of the famine-stricken Tartars in the neighboring province of Kazan selling their children to dealers from the Caucasus. Eight girls, aged from 12 to 16, had been sold for \$40 to \$75 each.

With the opening of 1907, by what is called a "juridical fiction," the Russian Mir becomes a purely voluntary association, and the peasant is able to move from his land. With no money, however, and ground down by taxation, this is a merely nominal blessing. Other noteworthy happenings in Russia during the month were the conviction (and sentence to death) of Admiral Nebogatov for surrender to the Japanese in the battle of the Sea of Japan, May 28, 1905; the confiscation by the censor of General Kuropatkin's book on the Russo-Japanese War; and the purchase (at Krasnoyarsk, Siberia), for our own Congressional Library at Washington, of the famous Yudin collection of 80,000 volumes on Russia.

Constitutional
Persia
Emerges.

Almost simultaneously come the news dispatches from Teheran of the death of Shah Muzaffar-ed-Din, the accession to power of the new ruler, Mohammed Ali Mirza, and the assembling, in accordance with the new constitution, of the first Persian Parliament. This classic land of antiquity thus obtains actual representative government before her mighty



WHY SHOULD EUROPEAN RUSSIA ENVY ASIATIC PERSIA ITS CONSTITUTION? HAS NOT IVAN THE DUMA?
From Fischetto (Turin).

neighbor to the North. With the first day of 1907 Persia became a constitutional monarchy, the instrument providing for a bicameral Parliament having been signed several days preceding by the late monarch. The national council consists of 156 members; a Senate is also provided for, of a membership to be settled hereafter. General elections will be held every two years. The former Minister of Commerce, Sanieh-ed-Daouleh, has been elected president, and the first session, held on January 3, was devoted to a consideration of the national finances.

*What Will
the New
Shah Do?*

Although Persia is comparatively secluded and remote from the chief centers of interest, for years there has been going on in this ancient land a silent but momentous struggle between Great Britain and Russia for dominating influence which should eventually expand into absorption. We may now look for a revival of discussion of the Bagdad Railroad, largely engineered by Germans. These three modern European nations have long been struggling for commercial ascendancy in Persia, which, even in its decline, remains great. Its 10,000,000 people, as recent events amply demonstrate, are both physically and mentally worthy of their illustrious ancestry. Moreover, desolate as a large part of the empire is, it still contains resources of vast potential wealth, and, considered for its strategic position in war and commerce, it is of the first importance. The deceased Shah was a man of strong mentality and an honest well-wisher of his people. The new monarch is in his thirty-fifth year, and is regarded as a man of progressive tendencies. His foreign policy, it is claimed by students of middle-Asiatic politics, will consist largely in playing off England against Russia.

*The Indian
National
Congress.*

The annual session of the Indian National Congress opened at Calcutta on December 26. The president, Mr. Dadabai Naoroji, who was re-elected, made an enthusiastic speech to the 1000 delegates present, in which he advocated an active campaign for Indian autonomy. This speech, as well as the resolution against the partition of Bengal, have been received with mingled feelings throughout England, some of the British journals even charging the congress with sedition. January 1, by the way, was the thirtieth anniversary of the proclamation of Queen Victoria of England as Empress of India, and



MOHAMMED ALI MIRZA, THE NEW SHAH OF
PERSIA (CROWNED ON JANUARY 19.)

sympathizers with Indian aspirations for national self-government are advocating that this anniversary be marked by some larger recognition of Indian rights. Without the least disposition to question the benefits of British rule in India, Americans can sympathize heartily with the aspirations of the great Hindu people for a more complete expression of their national desires. Mr. Naoroji's closing words are significant:

Be united. Persevere and achieve self-government, so that the millions now perishing from poverty, famine, and plagues, and the scores of millions now starving on scanty subsistence, may be saved, and India once more occupy her proud position of yore among the greatest civilized nations of the world.

*Japanese-American
Friendship.*

Although the sensational newspapers of this country and Europe continue to discuss, with more or less positiveness of detail, what they call the coming war between the United States and Japan, the relations between the two governments and peoples as a whole have never been better than they are to-day. The Japanese viewpoint in the matter of the San Francisco school question is set forth on another page (220) in quotations from Tokio dailies. As a matter of precaution against possible hostile demonstrations on the Pacific Coast, the Tokio government has decided not to send the Japanese training squadron to visit this country, as had been its original intention, although a Japanese fleet will probably visit the Jamestown Exposition this summer. While her energies are being absorbed in exploiting Manchuria and Korea, Japan begins to feel at home the reaction from the nervous temperamental and financial tension of the late war. In a recent interview Baron Shibusawa, one of the most prominent of Japanese economists and a large holder in financial institutions, predicted a

panic in the island empire at an early date if Japanese banks do not call a halt in the promotion mania, which has now reached a fever heat. He advocates a contraction of the currency. Persistent reports of a disagreement between the Japanese and Russian commissioners over the working out of those clauses of the Portsmouth peace treaty which refer to Japanese fishing rights off the Siberian coast, as well as the claims of Russian and German merchants that Japan is violating her pledges about the open door in Manchuria, are denied from Tokio.

*Washington,
Lincoln,
Longfellow.*

Some months ago an influential French journal asked its readers to vote for the 100 most illustrious and useful Frenchmen. The result of the voting showed that the verdicts of historical writers are not always borne out by popular insight. The choice of the widely separated voters of many different classes indicated that, while the masses of the people may be temporarily deceived in matters of this kind, the high standards of popular appreciation remain for comparison and for inspiration. Not even an iconoclast of the eminence and courage of Tolstoi, for instance, can destroy our literary ideals. The great Russian's recent book on the weaknesses and faults of Shakespeare somehow does not convince. The verdict of the ages is not often wrong. This fact is brought out in the remarkable way in which the fame of some of our own great public men has persisted and even waxed greater with the years. During this month of February occurs the one hundred and seventy-fifth anniversary of the birth of George Washington, the one hundredth of the birth of the poet Longfellow, and the ninety-eighth of the natal day of Abraham Lincoln. Every year of our republic's history seems to add to the dignity and glory of Washington's name. The fame of Lincoln is forever on the increase, and it may be safely asserted that the corner which Longfellow occupies in the hearts of his countrymen can never be usurped by another. The gentle poet did not strike the note of Emerson, of Bryant, of Poe, of Lowell, or of Whitman, but he sang songs that touched the hearts of his countrymen and of all the world. They are celebrating in Cambridge, on the 27th of this month, the centenary of his birth, and we describe the ceremonies on another page. It is a good thing for the democracy of America that the lives of men like these are accepted as ideals which persist.



SHAKESPEARE AND TOLSTOI.

The Immortal William (in Paradise) to Goethe, who was largely instrumental in starting Shakespeare's fame, (pointing to Tolstoi, who has just written a book on the faults of the Avon bard): "My dear Wolfgang, if I had only known of him I should have put him into my plays as my best clown."—From *Ulk*. (Berlin).

RECORD OF CURRENT EVENTS.

(From December 19, 1906, to January 20, 1907.)

PROCEEDINGS IN CONGRESS.

December 19.—In the Senate, President Roosevelt's message on the discharge of the colored troops of the Twenty-fifth Infantry is read.

December 20.—Both branches adjourn for the holiday recess.

January 3.—Both branches reassemble after the holiday recess. . . . In the Senate, the resolution of Mr. Foraker (Rep., Ohio), directing an inquiry into the discharge of the colored troops at Brownsville, Texas, comes up, and Mr. Lodge (Rep., Mass.), offers an amendment recognizing the President's right to discharge the troops.

January 7.—In the Senate, Mr. Lodge (Rep., Mass.), offers a new resolution for an inquiry into the dismissal of the negro troops. . . . The House passes the bill providing for a judicial review of the facts before a fraud order is issued by the Post Office Department.

January 8.—The House debates the Army Appropriation bill.

January 9.—The Senate considers the bill limiting the hours of work of railroad employees. . . . The House strikes out, on a point of order, the provisions in the Army Appropriation bill abolishing the rank of lieutenant-general.

January 10.—The Senate, by a vote of 70 to 1, passes a substitute presented by Mr. LaFollette (Rep., Wis.), for his bill to regulate the hours of employment on railroads.

January 11.—The Senate passes the General Service Pension bill. . . . The House, in one hour and thirty-five minutes, passes 628 private pension bills.

January 12.—In the Senate, a message was received from President Roosevelt, urging action in the break of the Colorado River threatening the Imperial Valley.

January 14.—The Senate passes the Legislative Appropriation bill; the President sends in a message in which he stands by his action in dismissing the negro troops from the army, but revokes that part of the order which bars the discharged men from civil employment under the Government. . . . The House passes a bill to prohibit unnecessary whistling by vessels in harbors.

January 15.—In the Senate, Mr. Spooner (Rep., Wis.), concludes his defense of the President's right to discharge soldiers without honor; the nominations of George B. Cortelyou to be Secretary of the Treasury, James R. Garfield to be Secretary of the Interior, George von L. Meyer to be Postmaster-General, and Herbert Knox Smith to be Commissioner of Corporations are confirmed. . . . The House debates the Fortifications Appropriation bill.

January 16.—In the Senate, Mr. Foraker (Rep., Ohio) introduces a substitute resolution on the discharge of the negro troops. . . . The House passes the Fortifications Appropriation bill.

January 17.—In the Senate, Mr. Blackburn (Dem., Ky.) offers an amendment to the resolution of inquiry concerning the discharge of the negro troops, especially disclaiming any right to question the President's power of dismissal. . . . The House passes a bill authorizing the President to send the supply-ship *Celtic* with relief for the people of Jamaica.

January 18.—In the Senate, Mr. Whyte (Dem., Md.) speaks against encroachment by the federal Government on the powers of the States, and Mr. Kittredge (Rep., S. D.) attacks the lumber trust. . . . The House adopts an amendment to the Legislative Appropriation bill, increasing the salary of the Vice-President, Speaker, and members of the cabinet to \$12,000 and of Congressmen to \$7,500 a year.

POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT—AMERICAN.

December 22.—President Roosevelt orders a new investigation of the trouble at Brownsville, Texas, in which United States negro troops were implicated, to be made by Assistant Attorney-General Purdy.

December 29.—Secretary Taft announces that while he is not seeking the Presidency and does not expect to be a candidate, he would not decline the nomination if it should come to him.

December 30.—Attorney-General-elect Jackson of New York informs W. R. Hearst that he will consider an application for a recount of the ballots cast in the mayoralty election of 1905.

January 1.—The new federal Pure Food and Drugs law goes into effect throughout the United States. . . . Judge McCall, of the federal court, declares the LaFollette fellow-servants act unconstitutional. . . . Charles E. Hughes is inaugurated as Governor of New York.

January 2.—The New Hampshire Legislature elects Charles M. Floyd (Rep.) Governor.

January 3.—Governors Guild of Massachusetts, Cobb of Maine, and Floyd of New Hampshire take the oaths of office.

January 4.—The Interstate Commerce Commission begins an investigation of recent railroad wrecks.

January 7.—The United States Supreme Court, on a division of 5 to 4, holds invalid the annual tax of 4 cents per \$1000 capital stock imposed by the State of Colorado upon foreign corporations doing business in that State. . . . Postmaster-General Cortelyou announces his retirement as chairman of the Republican National Committee; Harry S. New will be acting-chairman. . . . Attorney-General Jackson of New York State names Clarence J. Shearn, W. R. Hearst's counsel, as special counsel to direct the suit to oust Mayor McClellan.

January 8.—The New York Court of Appeals decides that the Brooklyn Rapid Transit Company has the right to charge double fares, 10 cents, from the central part of Brooklyn to

Coney Island....W. R. Hearst is elected State chairman of the Independence League of New York.

January 9.—The Philippine Commission passes the General Election law.

January 10.—The Interstate Commerce Commission finishes the Chicago hearing on the Harriman railroad lines.

January 11.—Republican members of the Kansas Legislature nominate Representative Charles Curtis for the United States Senate.

January 14.—Republicans of the West Virginia Legislature nominate Stephen B. Elkins for his third successive term as United States Senator....Governor Hughes of New York appoints ex-Senator Frederick C. Stevens Superintendent of Public Works and Charles H. Keep as Superintendent of Banks.

January 15.—Harry A. Richardson (Rep.) is elected United States Senator for Delaware.... The Massachusetts Legislature elects Winthrop Murray Crane (Rep.) United States Senator.... The Maine Legislature re-elects United States Senator William P. Frye (Rep.)....The Montana Legislature elects Representative Joseph M. Dixon (Rep.) United States Senator to succeed W. A. Clark (Dem.)....The Nebraska Legislature elects Norris Brown (Rep.) United States Senator....The Colorado Legislature elects Simon Guggenheim (Rep.) United States Senator to succeed Thomas M. Patterson (Dem.)....The Idaho Legislature elects William E. Borah (Rep.) to succeed Fred. T. Dubois (Dem.) as United States Senator....The Tennessee Legislature elects ex-Gov. Robert L. Taylor (Dem.) to succeed Edward W. Carmack as United States Senator....Democratic members of the North Carolina Legislature nominate F. M. Simmons for re-election as United States Senator.

January 16.—The New Hampshire Legislature re-elects United States Senator Henry E. Burnham (Rep.)....The Michigan Legislature elects Representative William Alden Smith (Rep.) United States Senator to succeed R. A. Alger.

POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT—FOREIGN.

December 19.—The Victorian Parliament passes an anti-gambling bill....The British House of Lords, by a vote of 132 to 52, rejects the concessions offered by the government in the matter of the Education bill.

December 20.—The Governor of Southwest Africa arrives in London to negotiate with the British Government on frontier questions.... Sir Henry Campbell-Bannerman formally withdraws the Education bill in the British House of Commons.

December 21.—The British Parliament is prorogued....The French Chamber of Deputies, by a vote of 413 to 166, passes the amended Separation law.

December 22.—A negro leader in Cuba issues a manifesto saying that the negroes demand a large share in the offices in return for the part which they played in the recent revolt.

December 24.—General Alfaro is formally elected President of Ecuador by the National Assembly.

December 26.—A bill for the regulation of labor is introduced in Congress by the government of Uruguay....A test vote in the French Senate on the amended Separation bill shows 183 members in its favor to 80 opposed.

December 28.—The Danish Royal Sanitary College, in an address to the King, accuses the Danish Minister of Justice of abuse of power....The French Senate, by a vote of 187 to 87, passes the amended Separation bill.

December 29.—The Japanese Diet is opened

December 30.—The Shah and the Crown Prince sign the Persian constitution, the Crown Prince also signing a document promising not to dissolve the present Parliament within two years.

December 31.—President Penna of Brazil authorizes a loan to Rio Janeiro of \$50,000,000.... The Persian National Assembly rejects the proposed composition of the Senate, and the negotiations regarding the constitution are reopened.

January 1.—The Persian National Assembly accepts a revised constitution as submitted by the Grand Vizier.

January 2.—The Russian preliminary budget estimates for the first six months of 1907 show an increase of nearly \$19,000,000 in the regular expenditures compared with those for the same period last year.

January 3.—The new French law amending the Church and State Separation law of 1905 is signed by the President and promulgated.... The articles of the Polish National League, published at Breslau, show plans to take action in case of war; several leaders of the agitation are placed on trial at Gneisen.

January 8.—The Prussian budget shows a surplus of over \$13,000,000 for 1906, and a still better prospect for 1907.

January 9.—General Pavlov, the Russian military procurator, is shot and killed by a Terrorist at St. Petersburg; the assassin is captured.... Mohammed Ali Mirza is formally acknowledged as Shah of Persia.

January 14.—The Russian provisional budget shows a deficit of over \$120,000,000, for which a new loan must be raised....The Porto Rican Legislature meets and elects Francisco de P. Acuna Speaker.

January 16.—The election of President Figueroa of the Republic of Salvador is announced.

January 20.—Count Okuma announces his intention to resign the presidency of the Japanese Progressive party.

INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS.

December 19.—The United States Senate confirms the nominations of Henry White, of Rhode Island, as Ambassador to France; Lloyd C. Griscom, of Pennsylvania, as Ambassador to Italy; John W. Riddle, of Minnesota, as Ambassador to Russia; Irving D. Dudley, of California, as Ambassador to Brazil; and Leslie Combes, of Kentucky, as Minister to Peru.... The United States Senate ratified the Red Cross convention providing for the amelioration of the condition of wounded of armies on the field....The Executive Committee of the Bureau of

American Republics elects John Barrett to be Director of the Bureau.

December 20.—The French Senate ratifies the Algeiras convention.

December 21.—It is announced that the British Government has been informed that the appointment of James Bryce as Ambassador will be entirely acceptable to the United States (see page 166).

December 28.—Sir Mortimer Durand, the British Ambassador to the United States, leaves Washington.

December 29.—The Russian Government publishes the text of its negotiations with Japan.

December 30.—King Edward approves the appointment of James Bryce to be British Ambassador to the United States.

January 6.—A conference of Austro-Hungarian ministers decides to open negotiations for commercial treaties with Rumania and Bulgaria.

January 8.—Chinese commissioners sent to Manchuria recommend an effort to regain the railroad and mining privileges granted to Russians and Japanese.

January 9.—It is announced that Great Britain and Russia have agreed to support the new Shah of Persia.... Secretary Root makes an argument before the Foreign Relations Committee of the United States Senate for ratification of the treaty with Santo Domingo.

January 12.—The Chilean Government proposed to Parliament the raising of the legation at Washington to the rank of embassy.

January 14.—It is announced that a complete agreement has not been reached by the German and American commissioners in regard to tariff schedules.

January 19.—Governor Swettenham, of Jamaica, peremptorily requests that the American troops be withdrawn from relief work at Kingston; the warships under Admiral Davis sail away from the harbor.

January 20.—Nicaragua and Honduras agree to submit their differences to arbitration.

OTHER OCCURRENCES OF THE MONTH.

December 19.—Fire at Harbin destroys the quarters of the general staff, the museum, the library, and many warehouses.... The three hundredth anniversary of the sailing of the first British colony for Virginia is celebrated in London.

December 20.—M. Ribot is received into the French cabinet.

December 21.—A native industrial exhibition is opened in Calcutta.

December 22.—A violent earthquake affects a large section of Russian Turkestan.

December 23.—President Roosevelt issues a proclamation calling on the people of the United States to contribute to the relief of the Chinese famine sufferers.... A strike of locomotive firemen goes into effect on the Southern Pacific Railway.

December 25.—A Russian court-martial condemns to death ex-Admiral Nebogatov and the officers of his squadron, but petitions the Czar

to commute the death sentence to 10 years' imprisonment.... Heavy snowstorms are reported from all over England.... The first instance of the closing of a church under the French Separation law occurs at Alzay-sur-Indre.... A total of 582 cases of typhoid is reported from Scranton, Pa.

December 26.—Serious earthquake shocks are reported in the province of Tacna, Chile; half of the town of Arica is destroyed.... The Indian National Congress opens at Calcutta.... The Attorney-General of Minnesota brings suit for an injunction to prevent the proposed issue of \$60,000,000 stock by the Great Northern Railroad.

December 27.—Snowstorms in Great Britain block roads and wreck telegraph and telephone communication in many places.

December 28.—In a train wreck near Arbroath, Scotland, 21 persons are killed and about 20 injured.... The Governor of Akmolinsk, Russia, is assassinated.... George W. Perkins and Charles S. Fairchild are indicted by grand jury in New York on six counts, charging forgery in the third degree, in connection with transfers of stocks by the New York Life Insurance Company.

December 29.—The Cleveland Electric Railway announces 3½-cent fares on all of its city lines.... One hundred thousand men are reported out of work at Lodz, all the factories having been closed.

December 30.—Forty-five persons are killed and about 100 injured in a train wreck on the Baltimore & Ohio near Washington, D. C.

December 31.—An agreement signed by the British railroads abolishing rebates goes into force.

January 2.—Fire in the military storehouses on the gun-wharf at Portsmouth, England, does damage estimated at \$1,250,000.

January 4.—A gift of \$700,000 by Andrew Carnegie, for a building to house the Bureau of American Republics in Washington, is announced.

January 5.—The Canadian Government decides to place an export duty on electricity from Niagara Falls in order to obtain power for the Dominion's industries.... The Baroness Burdett-Coutts is buried in Westminster Abbey (see page 199).

January 7.—The Chinese trading quarter of Bangkok, Siam, is destroyed by fire; the loss is estimated at \$3,000,000.

January 10.—A severe typhoon sweeps the islands of Leyte and Samar; 100 lives are lost and much property destroyed.... Earthquake shocks are felt in Norway, Sweden, and several American states.... The Hawaiian volcano Mauna Loa is active.

January 14.—The greater part of the city of Kingston, Jamaica, is destroyed by earthquake shocks and fire immediately following; the dead number more than 1000.

January 19.—The Shah of Persia is crowned at Teheran.... The one hundredth anniversary of the birth of Gen. Robert E. Lee is celebrated throughout the South.... Fifteen thousand people are rendered homeless in and near Cincinnati.

nati by the Ohio River floods....A "Big Four" passenger train is wrecked at Sandford, Ind., by the explosion of a carload of powder; 22 bodies are taken from the wreck.

January 20.—Great damage is done by the Ohio River floods.

OBITUARY.

December 19.—Bishop Charles C. McCabe of the Methodist Episcopal Church, 70.

December 20.—Samuel Sartain, the steel engraver, 76.

December 21.—Prof. Frederic William Maitland, author of English law treatises, 57.

December 22.—Rev. Robert Rainy, D. D., of Edinburgh, 81....Count Alexis Ignatiev, member of the Council of the Russian Empire, 65....Judge Augustus J. Ricks, of the United States Court for the Northern District of Ohio, 64.

December 23.—Very Rev. Richard William Randall, D. D., dean of Chichester, England, 83.

December 25.—Henry Sweeting Chandler, for many years business and advertising manager of the New York *Independent*, 66.

December 26.—Count Eugene Zichy, the Hungarian statesman and Central Asian explorer, 70.

December 27.—Bishop A. Coke Smith, of the Methodist Episcopal Church South, 57....Walter Appleton Clark, the artist and illustrator, 31....Winfield Scott Keyes, the mining engineer, 67....Capt. William B. Seabury, commodore of the Pacific Mail Company's fleet, 65.

December 28.—Alexander Johnston Cassatt, president of the Pennsylvania Railroad Company, 67....William Watts Smith, president of the Bank for Savings of New York City, 54....Samuel Smith, until recently a member of the British Parliament, 70.

December 29.—Alexander William Black, M. P., 47....Gen. Marcus P. Miller, U. S. A. (retired), 71....Cardinal Luigi Tripepi, 71....Cardinal Felice Cavagnis, 66....Canon Henry Bailey, D. D., 91....Canon George Venables, 85.

December 30.—Baroness Burdett-Coutts, 93 (see page 199)....Mrs. Josephine Butler, the English philanthropist, 78....Ex-United States Senator Donelson Caffery, of Louisiana, 71....Ex-United States Senator Thomas M. Bowen, of Colorado, 71....George B. Young, a leading attorney of St. Paul, Minn., 62....Henry E. Hoyt, the American scenic artist, 71.

December 31.—Brig.-Gen. John Walker Barriger, U. S. A., 75.

January 1.—Sir William Pearse Howland, the Canadian statesman, 95.

January 2.—Prof. Albert F. Berg, the composer and organist, 82....Gustav Kruell, the well-known artist, 64....Prof. Otto Benndorf, the archeologist, 69....Joseph K. McCammon, formerly Assistant Attorney-General of the United States, 61.

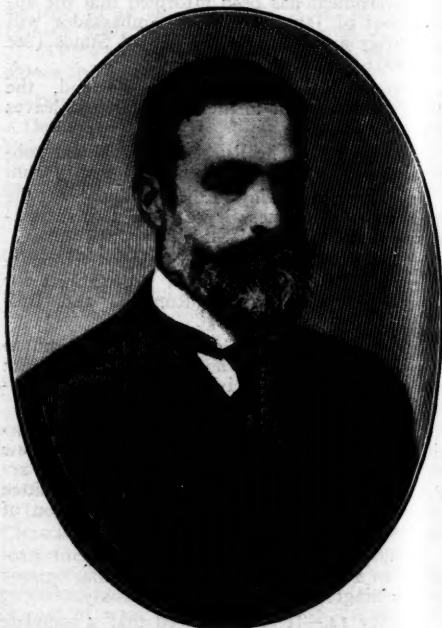
January 3.—Ernest Howard Crosby, author and social reformer, 50.

January 4.—Rev. John Cotton Brooks, D. D., of Massachusetts, 57....Robert H. Sayre, former vice-president of the Lehigh Valley Railroad, 82.

January 6.—Alfred E. Davis, the last of the pioneer railroad builders of California, 79.

January 7.—Admiral Lefèvre, former minister of the French navy.

January 8.—Muzaffar-ed-Din, Shah of Persia, 54....Ernest Gimpel, well known in Europe and America as an art expert and collector, 50.



THE LATE ERNEST HOWARD CROSBY.

January 9.—Marie, Queen of Hanover, 88....Lieut.-Gen. Vladimir Pavlov, military procurator of Russia, 55....David Overmeyer, a prominent Kansas Democrat, 60.

January 10.—Archbishop George Montgomery, of the Roman Catholic diocese of San Francisco, 60....Rev. Henry A. Barry, a well-known clergyman in the Roman Catholic archdiocese of Boston, 50....Judge I. Thomas Jones, of the Maryland Court of Appeals, 69.

January 12.—Dr. Charles Hallett Judson, dean of Furman University, South Carolina, 86.

January 13.—Prof. A. L. Frothingham, of Princeton, 78.

January 14.—Rudolph Korade, for more than 50 years Consul for the Swiss Government in Philadelphia, 82....Henry Squires, once a leading tenor, 82.

January 15.—Viscount de Cabo Frio, director-general of the Brazilian department of foreign affairs, 89.

January 16.—Rev. Laurence J. Kavanagh, a well-known Roman Catholic educator of Philadelphia, 54....Frank H. Richardson, president of the Nassau Bank of New York, 63.

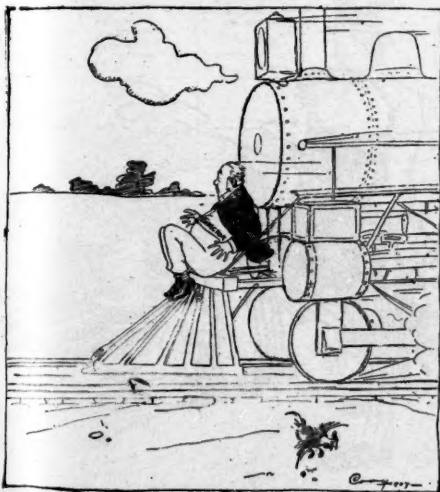
January 17.—Rev. James Woodrow, D. D., a well-known clergyman, educator, and financier of Columbia, S. C., 79.

January 20.—Gen. Charles M. Shelley, of Alabama, formerly a member of Congress, 74.

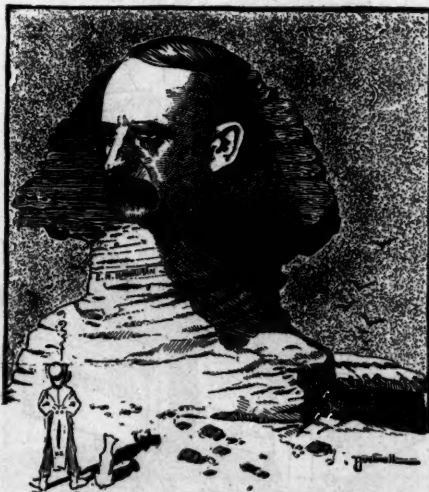
SOME OF THE CURRENT CARTOONS.



HARRIMAN, "COLOSSUS OF ROADS."
From the *Evening World* (New York).



THE WAY TO AVOID WRECKS.
From the *Evening World* (New York).



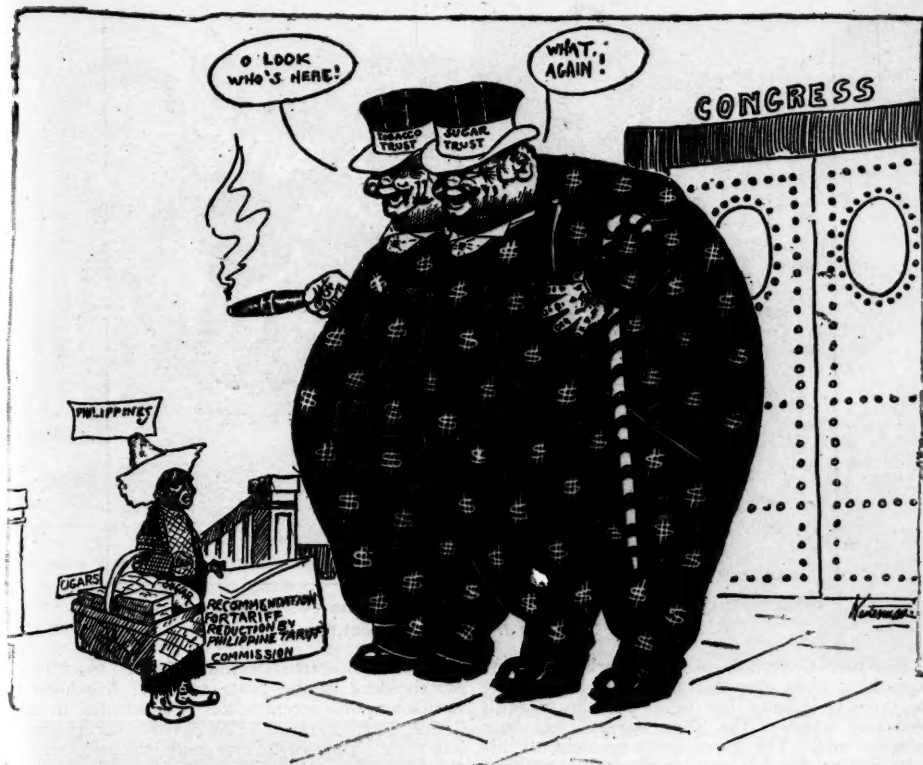
THE SPHINX OF WALL STREET.
From the *Post* (Cincinnati).



THE JUGGLE OF RAILROADS.
From the *Herald* (New York).



UNCLE SAM: "Three of 'em at home are wuth a dozen in Europe, b'gum!"
From the *Ohio State Journal* (Columbus).



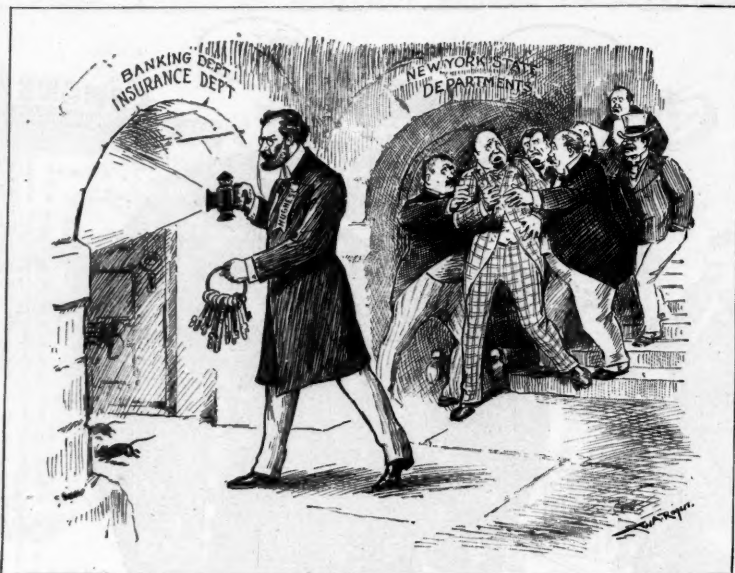
THE SAME OLD OBSTRUCTIONISTS.
From the *Ohio State Journal* (Columbus).



TOO BUSY TO THINK OF THE COAL FAMINE.
From the *Press* (New York).



OVERCAPITALIZATION! IT'S YOUR TURN NEXT.
From the *Tribune* (Chicago).



GOVERNOR HUGHES PROPOSES AN INVESTIGATION OF HIS OWN IN HIS OWN WAY.

From the *Herald* (New York).

The new Governor of New York, who was something of an investigator himself long before he came to Albany, has developed the freakish idea that some of the State bureaus will bear looking into. The mere announcement of his intention to use his own methods in acquiring such information as he deems necessary has

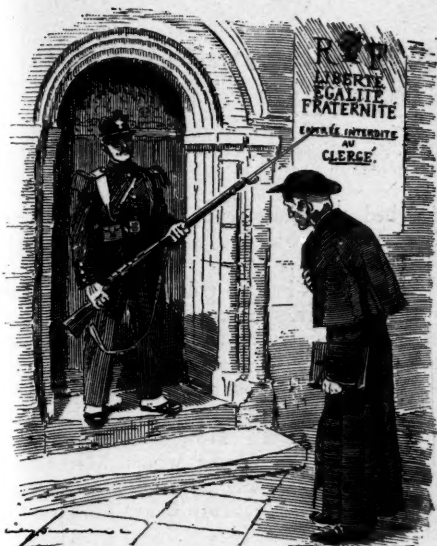
filled with consternation the ranks of "machine" officeholders in the State service. Another of the Governor's eccentricities is illustrated in the "back door" cartoon below. Governor Hughes has made it known to everybody that visitors to the executive chamber are to come in at the front door.



"IT WAS NOT LIKE THIS IN THE OLDEN DAYS."
Governor Hughes has abolished all hidden entrances to the Executive Chamber at Albany.
From the *World* (New York).



FROM THE MILL TO THE SCHOOL.
The State of Georgia welcomes the operation of the new Child Labor Law.
From the *Constitution* (Atlanta).



IS THIS THE TRIUMPH OF FRENCH DEMOCRACY?
From *Punch* (London).

Apropos of the eviction of French priests. The words on the church wall are: "Liberty, Equality, Fraternity. Entrance forbidden to the clergy."



JAPAN TO UNCLE SAM: "Look here, old man, how unbecoming your whiskers grow. You had better shave them a little."—From *Puck* (Tokio).



UNFORTUNATELY, PRESIDENT ROOSEVELT'S ARMS ARE NOT LONG ENOUGH.
From *Puck* (Tokio).



AN EXCHANGE OF COURTESIES.

JAPAN: "Allow me to offer you this slight token of my regard."

UNCLE SAM: "Be so good as to take this seat, my yellow friend."

From *Silhouette* (Paris).

JAMES BRYCE: BRITAIN'S ENVOY TO THE AMERICAN PEOPLE.

BY W. T. STEAD.

WHEN Cecil Rhodes indulged in day dreams of things that might have been but for the fatal folly of the German George, that Milner of the eighteenth century, he used to say that if the unity of the English-speaking world had not been broken up, the federal parliament of the race would have met alternately five years at Washington and five years at London. That ideal may never be realized. But as a practical step toward the elimination of the mischief done by the jingoes of by-gone days, Britain has at last decided that her representative at Washington must no longer be a diplomatist,—that is to say, a man trained in representing his country at foreign courts. He must be a statesman of the first class, a man of cabinet rank, who realizes that America is not a foreign land, and who will represent at Washington the unity of the English-speaking race. That is the significance of the new departure which has been taken by the King in selecting James Bryce as his Ambassador to the United States. The Americans are not foreigners, but kinsmen, and this being the case, we are in future to deal with them not through the ordinary channels of ambassadors accustomed to deal with nations of different lineage and language, but through the intermediary of a cabinet minister and privy councillor.

A BRITON WHO KNOWS AND LOVES AMERICA.

To inaugurate such a new departure no better choice could possibly have been made than was made when Sir Henry Campbell-Bannerman selected Mr. Bryce as the successor of Sir Mortimer Durand. The appointment, once the new departure was decided upon, was universally recognized as obvious and inevitable. For Mr. Bryce has for 30 years been accepted by all Britons as the best authority in England on the American commonwealth, and his book bearing that name has long since become a classic in every American library. Mr. Bryce has been almost the only British author who has handled freely, fully, and faithfully the most delicate problems of American national life without giving offense. He has always ap-

proached the giant republic of the West as King Agag approached the Prophet Samuel,—"delicately."

America has had no truer friend in all the world than Mr. Bryce, and his friendship has never been tainted by the suspicion attaching to the protestations of some prancing imperialists, who have indulged in much foolish spread-eagle talk concerning an "Anglo-American alliance." How sane, how statesmanlike was the rebuke which Mr. Bryce administered to those ignorant enthusiasts! Writing in *War Against War*, January 13, 1899, he said:

The sincerity of our friendship for America is discredited by the notion that it is support for ourselves we are seeking all the time,—a notion quite false, as regards Englishmen generally, though plausible enough as regards our jingoes.

That cordial friendship with the United States which we all desire, and should all prize most highly, will be retarded, not promoted, by talk about a formal alliance.

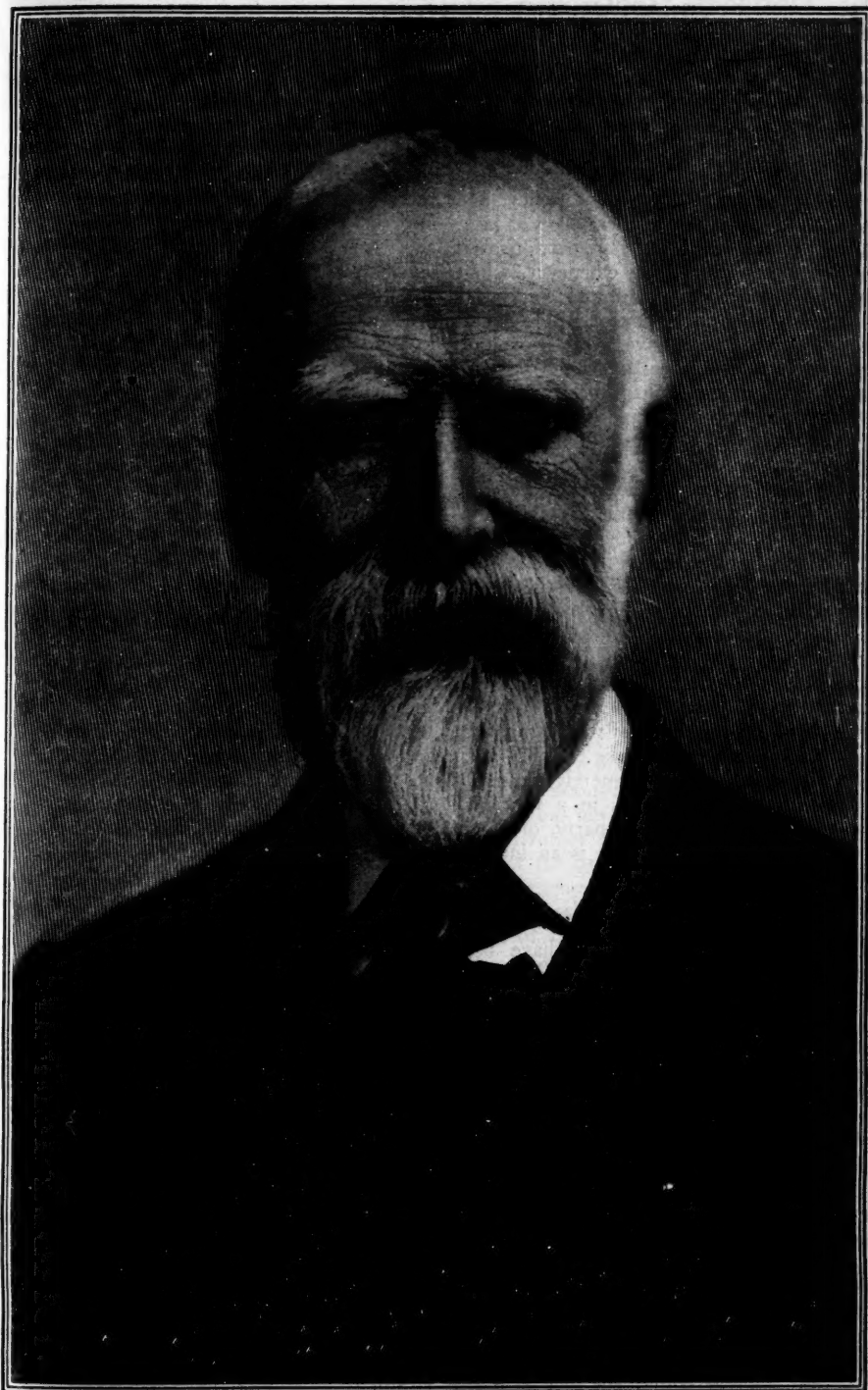
The suggestion of such an alliance creates disquiet and suspicion abroad.

The establishment of permanently friendly relations with the United States will make for peace, not only between England and America, but also between England and the rest of the world.

His appointment is a declaration, not in word but in deed, that the British Government repudiates in the most emphatic manner possible the mad notion that there is any desire on our part to make an arrangement "between the two 'Anglo-Saxon' nations to 'Anglo-Saxonize' the world; or that our friendship with America is meant, not so much to secure peace between two nations, as to organize those two nations for war against all rivals."

AN IRISH HOME RULER.

It is a demonstration the significance of which has been instantly recognized at Berlin, Paris, and St. Petersburg, in favor of international peace. But it is more than this. The one great permanent obstacle between a frank, friendly understanding between the empire and the republic has been the natural but deplorable animosity felt by the sons of the Irish exiles toward the state which to



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HON. JAMES BRYCE, THE NEW BRITISH AMBASSADOR TO
THE UNITED STATES.

them is the embodiment of foreign conquest. Every British Ambassador hitherto appointed to Washington has been regarded,—and naturally regarded by the Irish in America,—as the emissary of a hostile power. They grudged his successes, they thwarted his policy, and they would have regarded themselves as lacking in the true spirit of Irish patriotism if they did not do everything whenever, wherever, and however they could to counteract his efforts for the promotion of Anglo-American fraternity. We have every reason to hope that the appointment of Mr. Bryce will mark the end of this unhappy estrangement. Mr. Bryce is the first Home Rule Ambassador ever appointed by Great Britain as her representative in America. Mr. Bryce goes to the United States as the friend and supporter of Mr. Redmond and the Irish Nationalists. He is known by them to have been, in good repute and in ill, a staunch and true advocate of Home Rule. He is the son of an Irish mother, born in Ireland. He was one of the very few Gladstonians who, as far back as 1882, voted against the Coercion act; and one of his latest acts as Chief Secretary was to secure the removal from the statute book of the Peace Preservation act, which made it a penal offense to carry arms in Ireland. He will not merely represent the British cabinet; he will in a very real sense represent the National party, of whose aspirations for Home Rule he is an intrepid and enthusiastic supporter.

DEVOTED TO BRITAIN'S COLONIAL EMPIRE.

In some quarters misgivings have been expressed that Mr. Bryce was too good an American to be a sound imperialist, and here and there a Canadian has hinted a doubt whether Mr. Bryce might be quite as keen a believer in the future of the British colonial empire as in the destinies of the American republic. Such misgivings are easily to be explained. They are due to sheer ignorance and lack of acquaintance with the record of Mr. Bryce. It is true that he has not written a companion volume to "The American Commonwealth" on the Canadian Dominion. It is true also that he has written and spoken more about American than Canadian problems. But that was due to no lack of interest in Canada, or lack of faith in the brilliance of her destinies. Mr. Bryce, among all Liberal statesmen, has been the most pronounced in his devotion to our colonial empire. Long ago, before it became the fashion to be enthusiastic about empire or

about colonies, Mr. Bryce was one of the few men who, with the aid and support of the present Governor-General of Canada, founded the Imperial Federation League for the purpose of rousing the somewhat apathetic British public to the value of its imperial heritage. He has traveled in Canada, was made D.C.L. of Toronto University. He visited South Africa just before the Jameson Raid, and in his book, "Impressions of South Africa," he did his utmost to awaken and enlighten the public at home as to the value of our South African dominions. He is now, as he was then, a firm believer in the immense importance of promoting a firm and sympathetic alliance between the free, self-governing nations which have sprung up under the shelter of the British flag. No Canadian need fear that this hard-headed, tenacious Scot will be indifferent to the interests of the Dominion, which he knows and loves so well.

AS SCHOLAR AND MAN OF LETTERS.

Mr. Bryce is not only admirably fitted to represent Britain at Washington by his politics; he is not less ideally fit because of his personality. It was little more than a year and a half ago that I had the good fortune to hear the present Prime Minister discuss the character and capacity of Mr. Bryce. Both men were then in opposition. I had gone to see "C.-B." to tell him that within a year he would be in office with a majority of 250 at his back. After lunch we fell naturally to discussing the *personnel* of the future cabinet. In the course of our conversation Sir Henry remarked that he regarded Mr. Bryce as being "all round the most accomplished man in the House of Commons." "Bryce," said C.-B., "has been everywhere, he has read almost everything, and he knows everybody." There was at that time no thought of his appointment to Washington. C.-B. did not exaggerate. It is almost bewildering even to read the list of Mr. Bryce's academic honors. Since Lord Acton's death he is admittedly the most learned man in the House of Commons. As a man of letters his fame is world-wide. His history of "The Holy Roman Empire" has long been recognized as the classic text-book on the subject. It has gone through 20 editions in England and America, and is in constant demand. It is almost incredible that such a masterpiece of erudition and historical research should have been produced by a young man of 24. Four years before he published his "Holy

Roman Empire" he had written a volume on "The Flora of the Island of Arran." When he was 28 he produced an official report on the condition of education in Lancashire. Ten years later he made his *début* as a traveler and mountaineer by publishing his book on "Transcaucasia and Ararat." It is doubtful whether any human foot had trodden some of the almost inaccessible peaks of Mount Ararat to which he made his way alone, for no guide would accompany him to those mysterious summits from which Noah was reported to have descended from the Ark.

When he was 32 he became Regius Professor of Civil Law at Oxford, a post which he held until 1893.

IN POLITICS: THE "EASTERN QUESTION."

It was his travels in the Ottoman Empire which first brought him into public notice as a politician. Until 1876 he had a great academic reputation, but by the masses he was hardly known. It was the "Eastern Question" which brought him to the front. Familiar as a traveler with the actual condition of the various races which inhabit the Turkish Empire, he was able to realize immediately the significance and the immense possibilities of future development of the popular rising against the Turk which brought about the Bulgarian atrocities in the spring of 1876. When Mr. Gladstone sounded his clarion call to all worthy the name of Briton to rise in indignation against the Turkish alliance, which up to that time had been regarded as the sheet anchor of English policy in the East, Mr. Bryce was one of the first to rally to the side of the Liberal leader. He was full of knowledge, full of enthusiasm, and not less full of keen political sagacity. His speeches on the "Eastern Question" in the autumn of 1876 were among the most valuable and informative of all the innumerable platform utterances of that stormy time. When the great conference was held on the "Eastern Question" at St. James' Hall in the winter of that memorable year Mr. Gladstone was the chief speaker; but among the others who addressed that crowded and enthusiastic audience none was more appreciated than Mr. Bryce. Had the counsels of St. James' Hall been followed, and the British Government had loyally supported the program of reform drawn up by its own representative at Constantinople, Bulgaria would have been freed without the bloody and devastating war which the policy of Lord Beaconsfield forced

upon Russia. During that war the zeal of many grew cold. But Mr. Bryce remained faithful throughout. He was one of the pillars of strength to the humanitarian cause all through 1877. In 1878, when the Russian troops lay within a stone's throw of Constantinople, and all jingoddom was howling for war, Mr. Bryce came down to Newcastle-on-Tyne to speak at a great peace demonstration on Newcastle Town Moor. It was on the outskirts of the crowd, as I was standing on the muddy moor, that I first had the privilege of making the personal acquaintance of Mr. Bryce. Nearly 30 years have gone by since then, but amid all the vicissitudes of that eventful time that friendship stood firm. Mr. Bryce is no fair-weather friend either of persons or of causes. Stanch and loyal and true, he never struck his flag to the summons of a foe or betrayed the confidence of a friend.

IN PARLIAMENT FOR THE "EAST END."

It was two years after that meeting on Newcastle Moor that Mr. Bryce first entered Parliament. He was returned for Tower Hamlets, a huge democratic section of North East London.

In those days Mr. Bryce was hardly an ideal candidate for an East End constituency. There was about him that air of the academy which he has never altogether shaken off. He lectured rather than spoke, and was a bit too much of the professor to be widely popular. But his earnestness, his *bonhomie*, his intellect commanded respect everywhere. In the House of Commons he was speedily recognized as a man who never spoke unless he had something to say. His professional manner was a little against him at first, but friends and foes soon found that he was a man to be reckoned with. It was Mr. Gladstone's Parliament, elected in the floodtide of the reaction against the cynical and materialistic policy of Lord Beaconsfield, but destined all too soon to find itself distracted by the ever-recurring storms of Irish discontent. It is significant of the independence and courage of the member for Tower Hamlets that he was one of a very small handful of members who in those early days voted and spoke against the Coercion bill which was introduced by Mr. Gladstone's government, and enthusiastically supported by the immense majority of both parties.

During his first Parliament Mr. Bryce devoted much attention to non-party questions. He labored night and day to secure the re-

form of the iniquitous law by which up to that time the husband had the right to seize all his wife's property and appropriate every penny she earned by her own industry. The Married Woman's Property act, which secured to the wife a legal right to her own property, we owe as much to Mr. Bryce as to any man. He was at that time unmarried. His services deserve the more recognition because Mr. Bryce has never been able to see his way to advocate woman suffrage.

Another cause to which he rendered yeoman service was that of securing the right of the people to the enjoyment of what may be regarded as their national inheritance. With the instinct of a scholar he saw the immense importance of preserving for the people their ancient monuments. With the keen eye of a mountaineer he appreciated the value of permitting free access of the masses to the hills from which they were too often debarred for the sake of the deer. He sought in every way to secure for the common people access to scenes of beauty, opportunities for culture in town, free use of commons and forest and mountain in the country. He was a warm advocate of free libraries, and never lost an opportunity of forwarding every movement that helped to make Englishmen and Scotsmen at home in Britain.

During these years he repeatedly visited the United States, of whose laws and institutions he was making a close study, the fruits of which are now the common possession of the whole English-speaking world in "The American Commonwealth." This, however, did not see the light till 1888, and before that many things had happened.

A POST IN THE FOREIGN OFFICE.

When the Reform bill of 1884 was passed Tower Hamlets was cut up into several single-member constituencies, and Mr. Bryce, being invited to stand for South Aberdeen, went north, and was elected by the constituency which he has represented ever since. It was in 1885 that Mr. Gladstone made his famous plunge in favor of Home Rule. Mr. Bryce was one of the first Liberal members to follow his leader. His close study of American institutions enabled him to approach the problem without the alarm felt by stay-at-home politicians who knew nothing of the working of the federal principle. He was appointed Under-Secretary for Foreign Affairs under Lord Rosebery, and won golden opinions from the ambassadors with whom he had to do business. It was his first and

only experience of the wear and tear of active diplomatic work. An Under-Secretary for Foreign Affairs, whose chief is in the House of Lords, has a very busy time in representing his department in the House of Commons. The Gladstone government of 1886 was defeated on Home Rule, and Mr. Bryce went out into the wilderness with the rest of his colleagues.

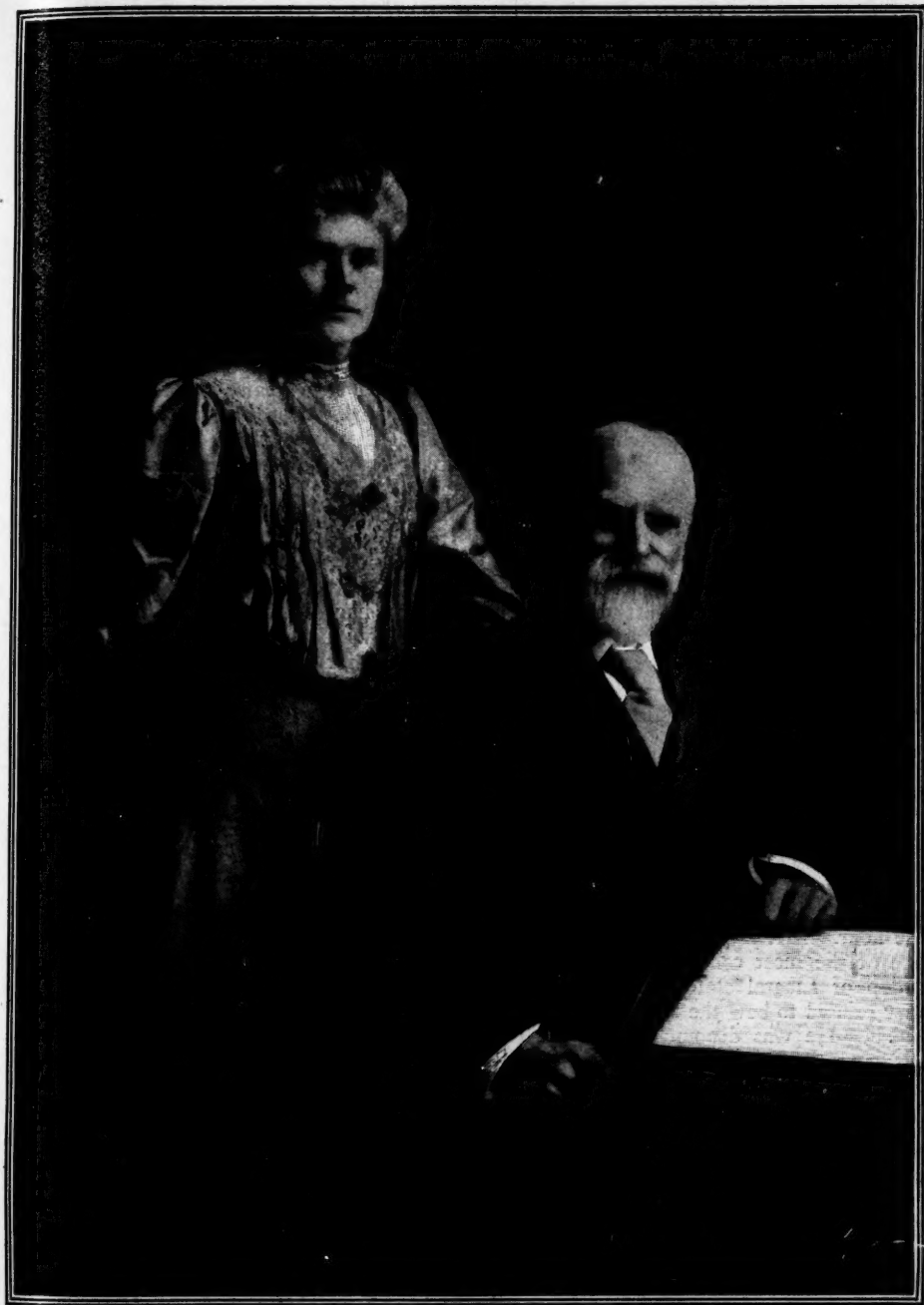
Two years after the fall of the Gladstone government appeared "The American Commonwealth," the *magnum opus* by which Mr. Bryce is best known by the general public, although it is possible that "The Holy Roman Empire" commands a more continuous sale. His volume of personal character sketches of some of the many distinguished men of our time, which was published the other day, is perhaps the most popular and entertaining of all his writings.

SUPPORTS GLADSTONE AND HOME RULE.

During the whole of the Salisbury government, from 1886 to 1892, Mr. Bryce did yeoman's service to the cause of Ireland, and when in 1892 Mr. Gladstone returned to office, he offered Mr. Bryce the post of Chancellor of the Duchy of Lancaster, with a seat in the cabinet. He took part in the incubation of the second Home Rule bill, and mourned with the other authors of its being when it was untimely slaughtered by the House of Lords. He was promoted to the presidency of the Board of Trade, which office he retained until the fall of the Liberal administration in 1895. In the agitation which ensued in the country, Mr. Bryce spoke strongly against the principle of hereditary legislation, and insisted that if there must be a second chamber it ought to be frankly democratic and elective.

CHAMPION OF PEACE AND ARBITRATION.

When the general election resulted in the return of a Unionist majority, Mr. Bryce visited South Africa. He was received everywhere with great cordiality. He was the friend of Mr. Rhodes without being the enemy of Mr. Kruger. He left the country, little dreaming that the catastrophe that wrecked the hopes of the pacific development of the sub-continent was so near at hand. Before he landed at Southampton the Jameson Raid had taken place and the furies of racial hatreds were unloosed. He wrote his "Impressions of South Africa" after his return; a good book, impartial, lucid, full of information and foresight.



MR. AND MRS. BRYCE AT HOME.

(In view of Mr. Bryce's American associations, it is worth noting that Mrs. Bryce's maternal grandfather was Samuel Stillman Fair, of Boston, Mass., who went to England early in the last century and became the Liverpool partner of the well-known firm of Baring Brothers. Her maternal grandmother was a descendant of John Greene, of Salem, who was associated with Roger Williams in the founding of Rhode Island. Mr. and Mrs. Bryce have no children.)

When the Peace Crusade of 1899 was launched Mr. Bryce, unlike some of his colleagues, did not content himself with writing a letter of sympathy. He went on the platform in support of the movement and pleaded warmly for the Czar's standstill proposition and international arbitration. Mr. Bryce has ever been a warm friend of arbitration. He has advocated it in season and out of season. Ever since his first visit to the Ottoman Empire he has been the fervent and impassioned advocate of the oppressed races of the East. In the '80's it was the Bulgarians, in the '90's it was the Armenians, who commanded his sympathy. No one regretted more than he the paralysis of Europe which followed the desertion by Russia and Prince Lovanov of the Armenian cause.

OPPOSED THE SOUTH AFRICAN WAR.

In 1899 came a great testing time of the reality of devotion of English statesmen to the cause of peace and liberty. Mr. Bryce was keenly interested in the welfare of South Africa. He had been the guest and was the friend and admirer of Cecil Rhodes. He shared to the full the desire of the Outlanders on the Rand to obtain some share in the control of the government whose treasury had been filled by their industry. He was a great imperialist in the English Liberal sense of the word. Suddenly, without any adequate cause, the empire was plunged into war with the Dutch republics. More than one of his former colleagues succumbed to the madness of the hour. Mr. Bryce did not. He formed one of the most conspicuous figures of the group of Liberal statesmen who from the first refused to bow the knee to the jingo reunion. He was denounced as a pro-Boer. He bore the reproach with serene indifference. From first to last he was a bold, uncompromising, ruthless opponent of the war.

CHIEF SECRETARY FOR IRELAND.

When Mr. Balfour resigned office at the end of 1905, Sir Henry Campbell-Bannerman made Mr. Bryce Chief Secretary for Ireland. It was not exactly the post Mr. Bryce would have chosen, for it involves constant crossing and recrossing the unquiet waters of the Irish Sea. But he shouldered his burden bravely and put his heart into the task. Never was there a more painstaking or a more conscientious Chief Secretary. Never has there been a Chief Secretary on such excellent terms with Mr. Redmond and the Nationalist majority. They appreciated

his honesty, they knew the sincerity of his sympathy, and although they gnashed their teeth over his dogged refusal to dismiss commissioners whose administration of the Land act they distrusted, they forgave him everything because of his stanch fidelity to the Nationalist cause. In answering questions in the House, he was almost too painstaking and too encyclopedic in the information with which he supplied his questions; and in mastering the details of Irish administration he wore himself almost to death by his tireless industry. "I have been studying the Irish question for 30 years," he said to me one day, "but I never realized how difficult it was till I had to handle it at the Irish Office." It is understood that one of the chief tasks he had to undertake was the framing of an interim local government scheme for Ireland, with the assistance of Sir Antony McDonnell, which may serve as a half-way house to Home Rule. The details of this measure have not yet seen the light, and the struggle with the Lords may lead to its postponement for some time to come.

A POPULAR CHOICE FOR WASHINGTON.

When Sir Mortimer Durand had to be replaced at Washington, and it was known that his successor was to be chosen outside the ranks of the regular diplomatic corps, the public, with unerring instinct, pointed to Mr. Bryce. "Thou art the man!" The Prime Minister, in tune in this, as in everything else, with the popular sentiment, offered Mr. Bryce the post. After stating the reasons of state which led him to urge Mr. Bryce to go to Washington, he added, "For my own part, so far as I am personally concerned, I heartily wish you would refuse it. I can ill spare you in the cabinet." Sir Henry told me that Mr. Bryce was invaluable in council. He was always well informed, his opinion was always ready, he always looked at every subject from a detached standpoint, which enabled him to see points which others would have overlooked. Above all, he was always straight, and never was tempted to wander into those devious paths which have so much attraction for some politicians.

Mr. Bryce, after much consideration, decided to accept the offer. Washington is no place of exile for him. He is going among friends. And although we all grieve to lose him from Westminster, we none the less heartily rejoice that the empire is to be so worthily represented at the capital of the republic.

THE LONGFELLOW CENTENARY.

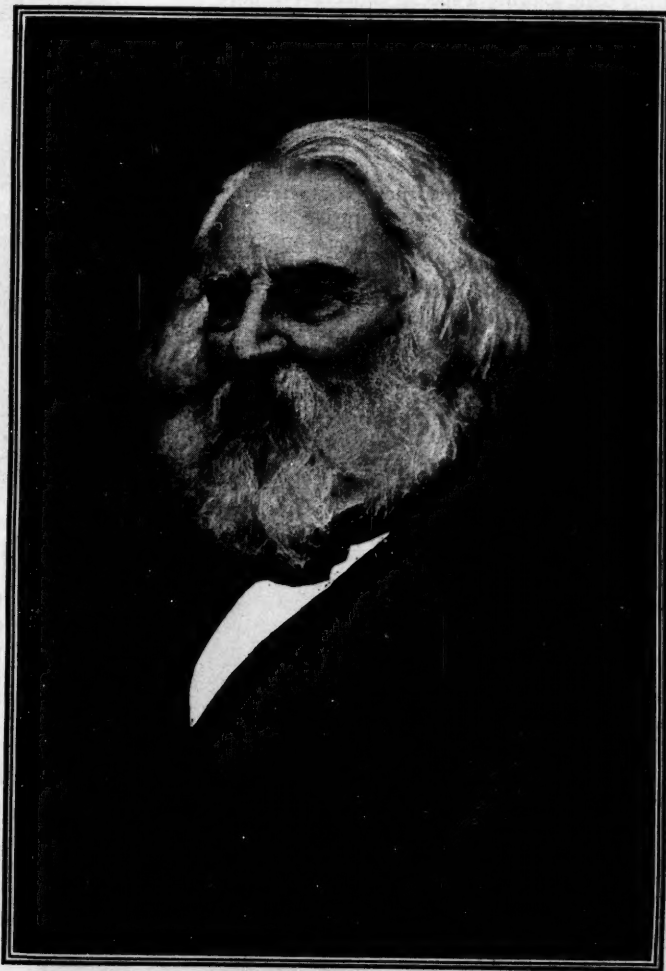
BY FRANK GAYLORD COOK.

IN "Hyperion" allusion is made to "the great importance, in the nation's history, of the individual fame of scholars and literary men," and the fear is expressed that "it is far greater than the world is willing to acknowledge." Evidently the times have changed. For in these later years have sprung up over the country many local historical societies, zealous and devoted bands of men and women, ready and willing to keep fresh the memory of the great men whose lives have been associated with their respective communities.

A conspicuous service of this kind is to be performed by the Cambridge Historical Society in celebrating, on February 27, 1907, the one hundredth anniversary of the birth of Henry Wadsworth Longfellow. The arrangements made for this event are commensurate with its importance. They are in charge of a representative committee, having Prof. Charles Eliot Norton as chairman,

and including such other leading citizens as President Eliot of Harvard University, Col. Thomas Wentworth Higginson, the Rev. George Hodges, D.D., dean of the Episcopal Theological School; Miss Agnes Irwin, dean of Radcliffe College, and Mr. Bliss Perry, editor of the *Atlantic Monthly*. The day will be observed as "Longfellow Day" in all the schools of the city, with brief ad-

resses by local speakers, and with the reading of essays upon the poet written by the pupils. In the afternoon the pupils of the grammar grades will gather in a large hall for a "Children's Hour," to listen to the reading of selections, and to join in the singing of adaptations, from the poet's works. In the evening there will be public exercises in Sanders Theater, consisting of addresses



HENRY WADSWORTH LONGFELLOW, 1807-1882.

(From a photograph taken in 1879.)

by Mr. William Dean Howells, Colonel Higginson, President Eliot, and Professor Norton, and of music by a chorus selected from the public schools. For the week of the anniversary or longer there will be exhibited in the Public Library a special collection of portraits, memorials, and other objects connected with the poet, and of early and rare editions of his works, to which various public libraries and several private collectors will contribute.

Moreover, the event is so unusual and noteworthy that at least two suitable memorials of it of a permanent character are planned. A small commemorative volume will be published by Messrs. Houghton, Mifflin & Co.,—the firm that has been so long and honorably connected with the publication of Longfellow's works,—consisting of a sketch of the life of the poet, by Prof. Charles Eliot Norton, together with some of the shorter poems of Longfellow, including those which have a distinctly autobiographical character. With a kindly thought for the youthful admirers of the poet, this little volume will be published not only in a large paper edition limited in number, but also in a small, inexpensive form, suitable to the youth of the schools.

The other permanent memorial will be a special commemorative bronze medal, circu-



PORTRAIT OF LONGFELLOW IN 1842.

(From the original painting, by G. P. A. Healy, in the Boston Museum of Fine Arts.)



Copyright, 1907, by the Cambridge Historical Society.

THE LONGFELLOW CENTENARY MEDAL.

(From the unfinished clay model. Bela L. Pratt, sculptor.)

lar in form and about $3\frac{1}{2}$ inches in diameter. It will be struck from a design by the distinguished artist, Mr. Bela L. Pratt, who designed the similar medal struck in commemoration of the twenty-fifth anniversary of the accession of Charles William Eliot to the presidency of Harvard University. Only 200 copies of this medal will be issued; and from this number will be reserved a few copies to be awarded hereafter, one each year, under the supervision of the Cambridge Historical Society, as prizes offered to the pupils in the schools of Cambridge, and for essays upon the poet's life and works.

It is quite fitting that this celebration should occur in Cambridge; for no

other place is so long and intimately associated with Longfellow's life and work. Here in December, 1836, at the early age of 29, and after five and one-half years of teaching at Bowdoin College, his *alma mater*, he took up a residence that continued till the end of his life, in 1882, —nearly half a century. And here he entered deeply into the life of the college and the town. From 1836 to 1854 he filled the Smith Professorship of Modern Languages in Harvard College as the successor of George Ticknor; and while in that position, as well as during his subsequent long period of freedom from teaching, he did the greater part of his poetical work.

To the making of a poet his immediate surroundings were most favorable. Old

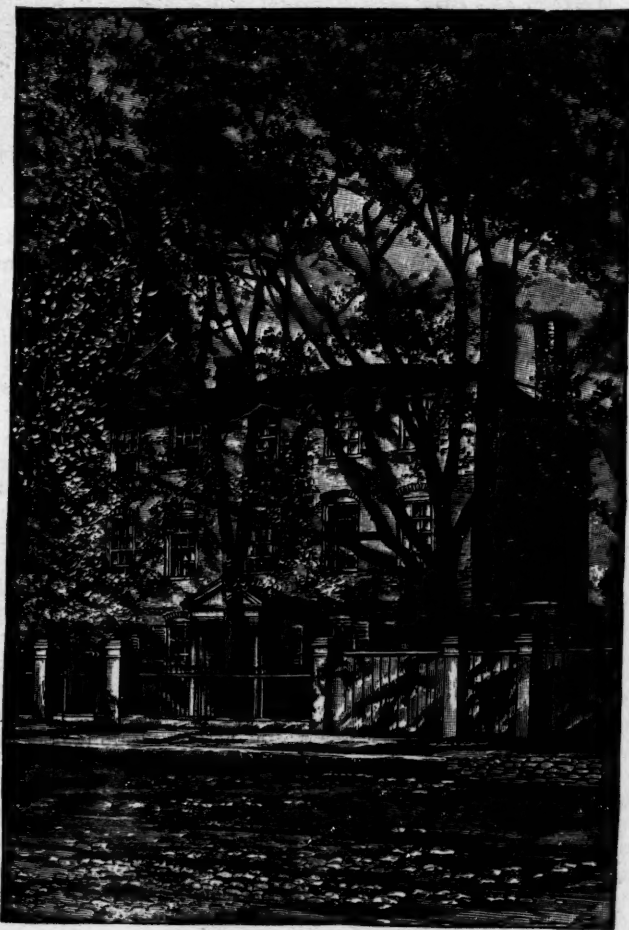
Cambridge itself was a quaint and charming place, with its broad, winding streets, shaded by ancient elms and bordered by many historic mansions. It was a fit abode for scholars. "Where should the scholar live?" asks the poet himself, in "Hyperion," "In solitude or in society? In the green stillness of the country, where he can hear the heart of nature beat, or in the dark, gray town, where he can hear and feel the throbbing heart of man? I will make answer for him, and say, in the dark, gray town."

With singularly good fortune, within about a year after he came to Cambridge he secured lodging in Craigie House,—then and still, in its aspect, its surroundings, and its outlook, the most beautiful house in the town. That he obtained this coign of vantage at all is creditable to his tact and address; for to the solitary and somewhat eccentric mistress of the house, Madame Craigie, the society of most persons was quite unwelcome. This young professor, however, with his pleasing aspect and manners, was welcomed as

soon as he disclosed his identity, and was given the very room that had been occupied by Washington in 1775, shortly after he took command of the Continental Army. After Madame Craigie's death, and the poet's marriage to Miss Appleton, this house which, in addition to its other advantages, commanded a wide and pleasant view, became the poet's home for the rest of his life.

In this happy home and in these pleasant surroundings he enjoyed high fellowship with kindred souls,—Felton, Sumner, Lowell, Emerson, Hawthorne, and all the others, distinguished in so many and varied fields of science, letters and poesy! One has but to name them to feel something of the impulse they must have given his expanding powers.

He led a full and varied life. With quiet



LONGFELLOW'S CAMBRIDGE HOME.
(Before he occupied it, known as the Washington-Craigie House.)



THE POET'S BIRTHPLACE (THE WADSWORTH-LONGFELLOW HOUSE, PORTLAND, ME.)

dignity and with genial hospitality he entertained the many friends that shared his affection and interests, and the distinguished visitors, scientists, and men of letters, that came often from long distances to pay their tributes to his genius. And although the master has been gone now for nearly a quarter of a century, the place he loved has been kept intact by pious hands, and is the shrine toward which eager pilgrims wend their way in ever increasing numbers.

Fortunately, there are still living a few of that distinguished coterie of Cambridge literati who enjoyed the poet's confidence; and these are they who are contributing so much to the celebration of the centenary of his birth. Prof. Charles Eliot Norton, the chairman of the committee, and Col. Thomas Wentworth Higginson, themselves natives and lifelong residents of Cambridge, knew the poet from their early years, and in mature life enjoyed his friendship. Professor Norton (than whom no more intimate friend of the poet is now left) and James Russell Lowell, as members of the "Dante Club," met weekly for several seasons at Craigie House, that they might aid Longfellow in the revision of his translation of the "Divine Comedy." An occasional assistant at these meetings was Mr. William Dean Howells,

who settled in Cambridge after several years' residence as American consul at Venice, and from 1866 to 1881 was engaged upon the *Atlantic Monthly*, first as assistant editor, and then as editor-in-chief. Similarly, President Eliot, as head of the university and resident of Cambridge, was often thrown into the society of Longfellow, especially toward the close of the latter's life.

There is much promise for the future estimate and the true appreciation of Longfellow in this joint tribute to his character and genius from these personal friends, with their ripe judgment and in the perspective of the 25 years that have nearly elapsed since his death. It is also perhaps the last loving testimonial of their friendship; for in celebrating his character and work, and in awarding his mead of praise they might well use the words that he employed in reviewing the 50 years that had elapsed after his leaving Bowdoin College: "*Morituri salutamus.*"

Above all, this conspicuous tribute is the more fitting because it is so richly deserved. Into his poetry Longfellow poured his whole self. And as his personality was so winning, inspiring, and satisfying to his most intimate friends, so it has appealed to the universal, common appreciation of his readers throughout the world.



LOADING QUEBRACHO LOGS ON THE RIVER PARAGUAY.

(This famous tree yields tannin almost to one-quarter of its weight, and the logs have been largely exported to Europe and the United States. Of late, however, immense tannin extract works have been erected in Argentina and Paraguay, one of which is owned by a New York firm.)

THE NEW ERA OF MANUFACTURING IN SOUTH AMERICA.

BY G. M. L. BROWN AND FRANKLIN ADAMS.

IT is but a few years since the most deplorable apathy was manifest in this country toward South American trade, and, indeed, toward everything relating to our South American neighbors, even to the maintenance of regular means of communication with them. Intercourse with several of the republics, indeed, was carried on almost entirely through Europe, the London post-office attending to the transmission of our mails, and London and Paris banking houses looking after our scattered collections. Our consuls have written innumerable reports pleading for improved conditions, travelers and commercial agents have added their warnings, Pan-American conferences have been held, the International Bureau of American Republics established, tons of

handbooks, guides and descriptive matter issued, and all, apparently, with little general effect upon American manufacturers and exporters, until the year just closed. Then came the awakening.

The changed situation to-day, as the reader is well aware, is due principally to the recent Pan-American Conference at Rio Janeiro, and to the personal efforts of Secretary Root, —first, to establish more cordial relations between our Government and those of the various South American republics, and secondly, to create throughout the country a truer estimate of these much-maligned neighbors. Mr. Root's speeches at the Kansas City Commercial Club and the Trans-Mississippi Commercial Conference at St. Louis will alone do incalculable good,

and his sound advice to those who would enter this long-neglected market has already had appreciable effect.

The press in the meantime has not been idle, the magazines and trade journals have taken up the propaganda, the Department of Commerce and Labor and such bodies as the Philadelphia Commercial Museum have redoubled their efforts, feeling that, for once, they have an attentive audience, that at last the American nation is alive to the need of immediate and concerted effort if this country is not to forfeit all chance of winning its share of this lucrative trade.

These symptoms are certainly encouraging; and if the movement be both united and persistent, no one could reasonably doubt the ultimate outcome,—viz., a fair participation in this trade, the establishment of rapid and regular transportation facilities (even without the proposed subsidies), and a general intercourse between the Americas that would insure at least a partial realization of the long-discussed Pan-American Union. But this hope is based upon an in-

definite continuation, or, rather, evolution, of present conditions,—a growing population, yearly demanding more articles of foreign manufacture, an expanding market of almost unlimited possibilities. That South America should itself become a manufacturer and eliminate all competitors has not heretofore even entered into the problem.

This, however, is the unknown quantity with which we must reckon. Not only European manufactures, hereafter, but home-produced goods are to be competed with, the output of their own factories, established, perhaps, by foreign investors, but protected by an ever-increasing tariff, and by a patriotic sentiment that augurs ill for the vast commerce for which we have so tardily prepared. Coincident, almost, with our awakening has come a new era of manufacturing in South America, an era that has as yet been scarcely recognized abroad, but which is slowly but surely effecting an industrial transformation throughout the entire continent.

The imports of South America in the past have corresponded, in a measure, to those of



THE NATIONAL EXPOSITION BUILDING AT BUENOS AYRES, IN WHICH WAS INAUGURATED, NINE YEARS AGO, ARGENTINA'S FIRST EXHIBITION OF INDUSTRIES, ARTS, AND MANUFACTURES.

(The building, which is finished in multicolored tiles and glass, was first erected by Argentina in Paris for the exposition of 1889, and afterward shipped to her own capital.)



HYDRAULIC MINING AT AN ALTITUDE OF 16,000 FEET, AT POTO, NEAR THE BOUNDARY OF PERU AND BOLIVIA.

(Peru owes much of her recent prosperity to the investment of American capital in her mines, railways, and manufactories.)

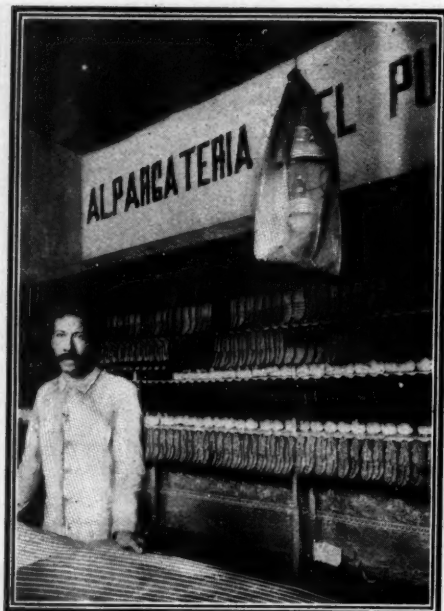
many Oriental countries. The preponderating lower classes demanded the crudest and cheapest articles that Europe could provide. Gaudy cotton textiles, *machetes*, knives and rude tools, cheap crockery and glassware, trinkets, etc.; were the staple articles of trade. Then came luxuries for the increasing urban population, such as pianos, jewelry, sewing machines, lamps and kerosene, wines and liquors, furniture, silks, woolens and expensive fabrics, leather goods, carriages, perfumes, patent medicines, etc., and more recently, confectionery and fancy groceries, laces, scientific and surgical instruments, stoves, kitchen utensils, typewriters, phonographs, bicycles, and automobiles.

RECENT TRADE DEVELOPMENT OF THE CONTINENT.

Simultaneously, however, there has been a marked development of the natural resources: in agriculture, creating a large demand for modern implements, fencing wire, coffee and sugar machinery, etc.; in the exportation of meat, necessitating the establishment of refrigerating plants; and in mining, with the necessary introduction of modern machinery. Transportation facilities have also been ex-

tended, and since the railroads, street car lines and steamboats have been built and supplied almost exclusively by foreign contractors, this has led to a large and lucrative trade. Equally progressive have been many of the governments and municipalities, not only in the purchase of warships, artillery, arms, and ammunition, but in the extension of telegraph and telephone lines, the establishment of water works, sewerage systems, and electric light plants, which, almost without exception, have been furnished or equipped by European or American manufacturers. Lastly, moreover, there has been a class of imports, small at first, and in many republics still relatively unimportant, but destined in time to cause a complete industrial upheaval, and, incidentally, to reduce almost every other output from northern factories. This includes machinery, stationary engines, electric motors, water turbines, etc., and all the necessary supplies for the construction and equipment of manufacturing plants.

Let it not be supposed, however, that manufacturing, in a broad sense, is of such recent date, and that South America has always been wholly dependent upon foreign nations.



AN "ALPARGATA," OR SANDAL SHOP.

(The alpargata is being fast supplanted by the leather shoe.)

During the colonial epoch, or at least until the middle of the eighteenth century, it is true, manufacturing even of the simplest articles, such as shoes or candles, was prohibited by Spain throughout her colonies; but from that period, and especially since the revolution, crude arts and handicrafts have been practiced, much as in other countries, and few are the towns or villages in Argentina, Peru, or Venezuela, for that matter, which, though bearing no evidence of their industries in towering chimneys or rattling machinery, cannot boast of their petty manufactures. One may make a specialty of pottery, bricks and tiles; another of sugar, rum and alcohol; another of soap, candles, oils and medicines; yet another

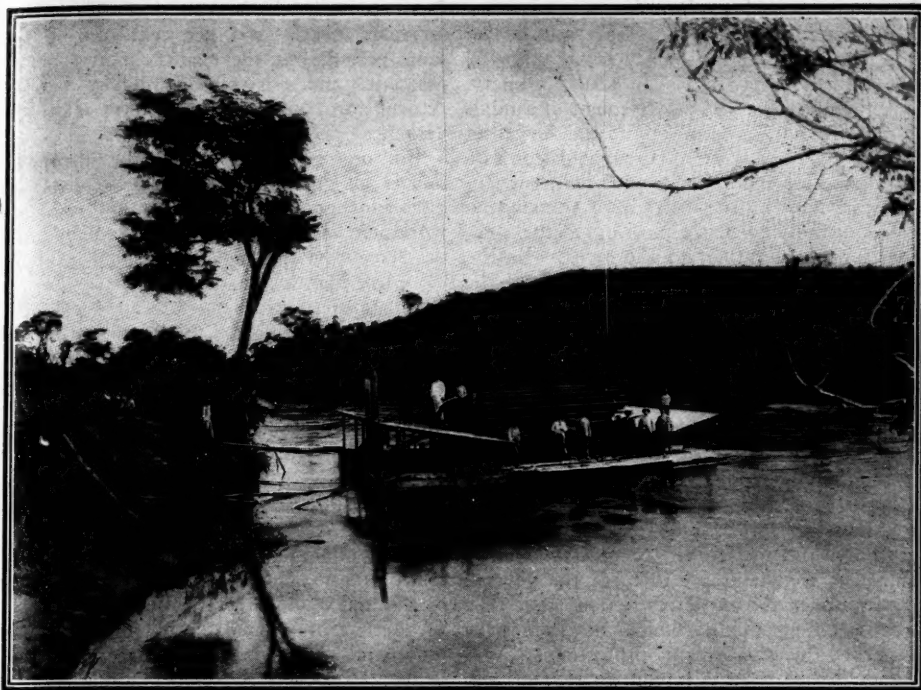
of saddlery, dressed leather and shoes, or, perhaps, of furniture, or grass ropes, or woven hats, or sandals, or tobacco products. The wonderful arts of the aborigines, moreover, are at least in part preserved to the present day: the weaving of cloths, both woolen and cotton, in Peru and Bolivia; the making of hats and hammocks, which is almost universal among the Indians; the silver work of the Araucanians, the lace making of the Guaranis, and the gold work of these tribes and of the various races ruled by the Incas.

From these primitive village handicrafts to the larger industries of the towns and cities, the evolution, though slow, has been as certain as in our own country. Buenos Ayres, even a generation ago, had its flour mills, breweries, distilleries, steam printing establishments, carriage factories, foundries, sawmills, etc., and in 1887 the Argentine capital showed the remarkable total of 1,244 factories, employing 42,321 hands. Five years later the Argentine Minister of the Interior, reporting upon the new factories that had sprung up in the environs of the capital, drew particular attention to "a shoe factory employing 970 hands and turning out 400,000 pairs of shoes yearly; a cloth factory employing 200 hands and consuming 400 tons of wool per annum, a paper mill producing 30 tons of paper daily, and no less than eight match factories." By way of contrast, refer to our geographies of that time!



A RETAIL LIQUOR AND GROCERY STORE.

(It may startle the American reader to learn that food adulteration and the imitation of proprietary articles, such as foreign brandies, or olive oil, or even ink, is coincident with the manufacturing era.)



POWER WHEEL ON A BRAZILIAN RIVER, OPERATED BY THE CURRENT.
(This is an excellent illustration of the primitive methods of the past.)

INFLUENCE OF PROTECTIVE TARIFFS.

This marked development of manufacturing, as the American public need hardly be told, was a direct effect of protective tariffs, which in Argentina, were first imposed in 1876. Nor were other governments slow to follow her example; so that to-day few of these countries are without a high tariff, designed, perhaps, as much for revenue as for the encouragement of home manufactures, but constantly revised, as our exporters are already learning to their sorrow, so as to protect any new industries that may arise.

It is impossible to arrive at an exact knowledge of the present trend of industrial development by a mere analysis of imports, since each republic presents many modifying conditions which must be carefully examined before the trade returns of any given year be too largely depended upon. Thus Peru shows an increase of 160 per cent. in her total imports in 1904, compared with 1897; but in the latter year, it must be remembered, Peru was still suffering from the depression caused by her disastrous war with Chile. Since then she has experienced a gradual tide

of prosperity, which, while stimulating the production of native goods, has allowed a much greater indulgence in luxuries, and luxuries, as a rule, still come from abroad. At the same time, moreover, has come the investment of foreign capital in her mines,—\$25,000,000 from America alone, it is estimated,—which, of course, has led to a phenomenal demand for the manufactures of iron and steel; hence, the remarkable showing of the United States in this class with an increase during the period mentioned of 201 per cent. Similar conditions are to be met with in other countries,—viz., a sudden wave of prosperity, resulting in a greatly increased consumption of luxuries, or an unusual influx of foreign capital for the construction of railroads, the opening up of mines, and the development of the varied natural resources.

But another factor must be taken into consideration, and one that may cause yet greater fluctuations in the trade and industries of the immediate future, and this is the spread of foreign ideas and customs among the peon class, who suddenly, and often *en masse*, discard some garment or utensil of their forefathers, and demand the latest, if not the

best, product of modern loom or factory. Remarkable instances of this are afforded in the discarding of the *manta* or *mantilla* by the women in favor of European millinery, and the more gradual displacement of sandals for shoes. Of more interest to the American exporter is the advent of corrugated iron as a substitute for roofing tiles or thatch, particularly in the country districts, a transformation, by the way, more pleasing to the commercial traveler than to the artist. Lastly, moreover, there are certain enterprises of the various governments, already briefly referred to, which frequently call for an extraordinary expenditure. Such, for example, are the proposed enlargement of the Brazilian navy, new port works at Rio Janeiro, Montevideo, and elsewhere, the increased military equipment of Venezuela under the Castro régime, and the remarkable public works in progress in Argentina, all of which permit of the unlimited importation of supplies. Vested interests in these countries, it will be noted, have not sufficient weight as yet to force the governments under the tariff restrictions that they impose on the public, which, however it be regarded by the ardent protectionist, will undoubtedly benefit foreign manufacturers for some time to come.

PROGRESS OF ARGENTINA.

Notwithstanding extraordinary or abnormal conditions, however, a brief review of the trade statistics of certain of these republics is exceedingly instructive. In Argentina we find that while in 1891 the exports exceeded the imports by \$35,000,000, approximately, in 1905 this amount had increased to

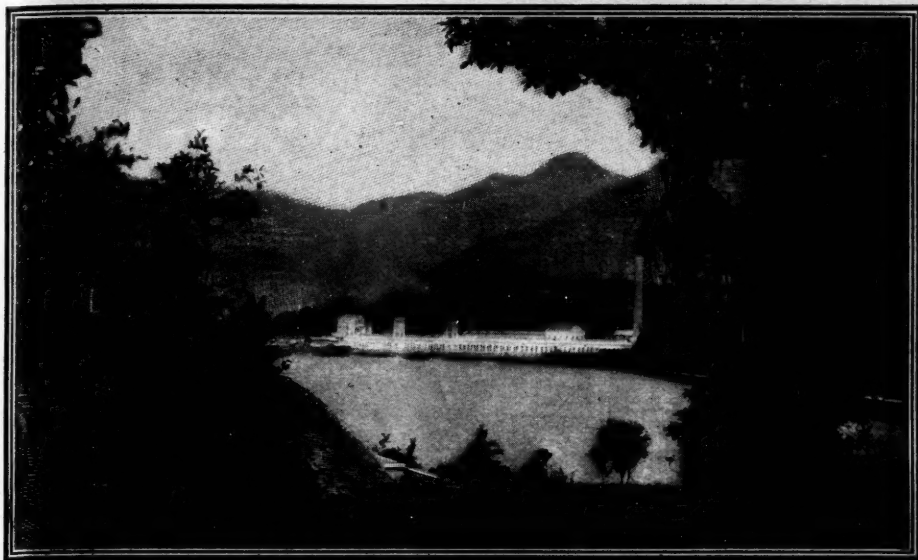
\$116,000,000. It is true that the imports increased nearly 200 per cent. during the same period, but the exports increased 212 per cent.; and it is safe to prophesy that the returns for 1906 will show a yet wider divergence.

But one is surprised that the disproportion is not greater. With more than 25,000 establishments, employing almost 200,000 workmen, and provided with adequate capital, Argentina even now seems well equipped to utilize her raw materials,—that is, so far as home markets are concerned; exported manufactures being for the moment ignored. Indeed, the importation of such commodities as flour, sugar, beer, butter, and, of course, all meat products, has practically ceased, and of the 20,000,000 liters of alcohol and spirits consumed in 1905, 15,000,000 were distilled in the country. The importation of tobacco products, also, is inconsiderable, and local cigarette factories, with the remarkable annual output of 186,000,000 packages, certainly supply all domestic needs. The extent of the match industry is equally astonishing, the output of wax matches (practically the only kind in use in River Plate countries) being 256,000,000 boxes per annum. Textiles, on the other hand, form one of the bulwarks of European trade, although Argentina now produces more than one-fourth of the entire wool output of the world, and can boast of an excellent cotton which is susceptible of cultivation throughout a large northern area. Nevertheless, cloth mills, as we have seen, were long since established, and the manufacturing of cotton, though of more recent date, has already assumed sufficient

importance to warrant the government's imposing a substantial duty. Wine and cheese are still imported in large quantities, notwithstanding an enormous domestic production, especially of the former, but this can be attributed in part to the taste of the large Italian population of Buenos Ayres, who prefer the vintages of their far-distant homeland. Foreign manufactures of wood are also increasing, though the local furniture fac-



THE WRAPPING DEPARTMENT IN A MONTEVIDEO CIGARETTE FACTORY.
(Cigarettes are practically in universal use in South America, and their manufacture is one of the principal industries.)



ONE OF THE LARGE COTTON MILLS NEAR RIO JANEIRO.

(Cotton spinning and weaving form the leading manufacturing industry in Brazil, and are represented by more than 100 mills, employing 40,000 hands.)

tories and car works are flourishing, and the demand for native lumber extending to the remotest districts.

BRAZIL AND COTTON.

Brazil has not enjoyed so great a prosperity as Argentina of late, and her imports of luxuries are relatively smaller. Her trade statistics, therefore, are particularly interesting, showing, as they do, how quickly she is learning to depend upon domestic production. Nevertheless, it is necessary to bear in mind that skilled labor is here much scarcer than in Argentina; so that industries which may yet assume great importance are now in their infancy. On the other hand, Brazil has a growing European population in the South, where the bulk of her manufacturing is centered.

Taking two periods in Brazil, one from 1894 to 1898, and the other from 1899 to 1903, we find a general decline in the importation of nearly all the staple lines of foreign manufacture. In cotton goods there is an annual average decrease of from \$17,000,000 to \$12,000,000, or, approximately, 31 per cent.; in woolen goods from \$4,500,000 to \$2,285,000, or 49 per cent.; in the manufactures of iron and steel from \$16,125,000 to \$11,366,000, or 29.5 per cent. Leather showed a decline of 40 per cent., though the

United States actually increased her sales by 247 per cent., and the manufactures of copper decreased more than 2 per cent., notwithstanding an increase in American sales of 814 per cent. Paper, paints, glass, and explosives, as well, in spite of increased importations from the United States, show a general decline, respectively, of 14.8, 2.5, 31.9, and 37.8 per cent. In cordage, jewelry, clocks and watches, chemicals, and manufactures of wood, on the other hand, we fared even worse than Europe, while carriages and railroad cars showed the remarkable decline of 65.5 per cent. in the total trade, and 77.6 in that of the United States alone, or from \$517,000 to \$116,000.

It is not unlikely that this heavy shrinkage will disappear when the price of coffee and sugar goes up and Brazil's currency has become less unstable; with the United States, indeed, aided by the recent tariff discrimination in our favor, the gain may be considerable. But the fact remains that Brazil is learning to manufacture for herself, and looks forward to the not far-distant date when, in times of depression or emergency, she will be a self-contained nation.

The most important industry in Brazil is the manufacture of cotton goods, mostly from her own raw products, and more than 100 mills are already in operation, employing

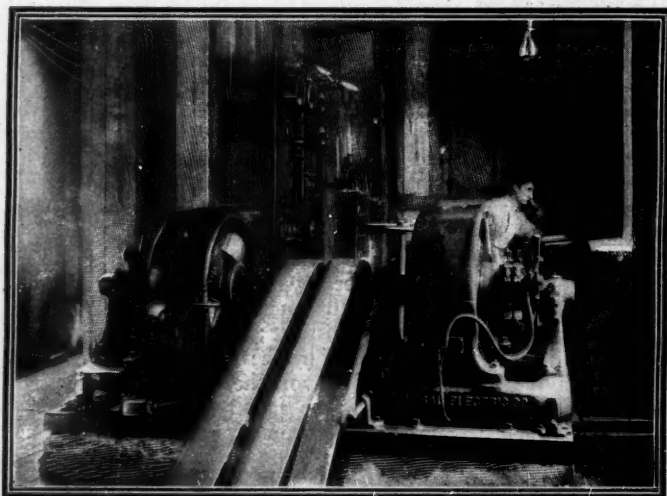


A TYPICAL SOUTH AMERICAN WAREHOUSE.

(An examination of the staple articles carried by the average *almacen* would show a surprisingly large percentage of native manufacture.)

nearly 40,000 hands. Most of these mills are to be found in Rio Janeiro, São Paulo and the cities of the south, as are also the woolen cloth factories, and the jute mills, the product of which is used largely in the manufacture of coffee bags. Sugar refineries, sec-

ond only to the cotton mills in importance; cigarette factories, shoe and leather establishments, iron works, silk mills, breweries, furniture factories, and flour mills are distributed among the leading cities and give employment to an increasing army of artisans and laborers.

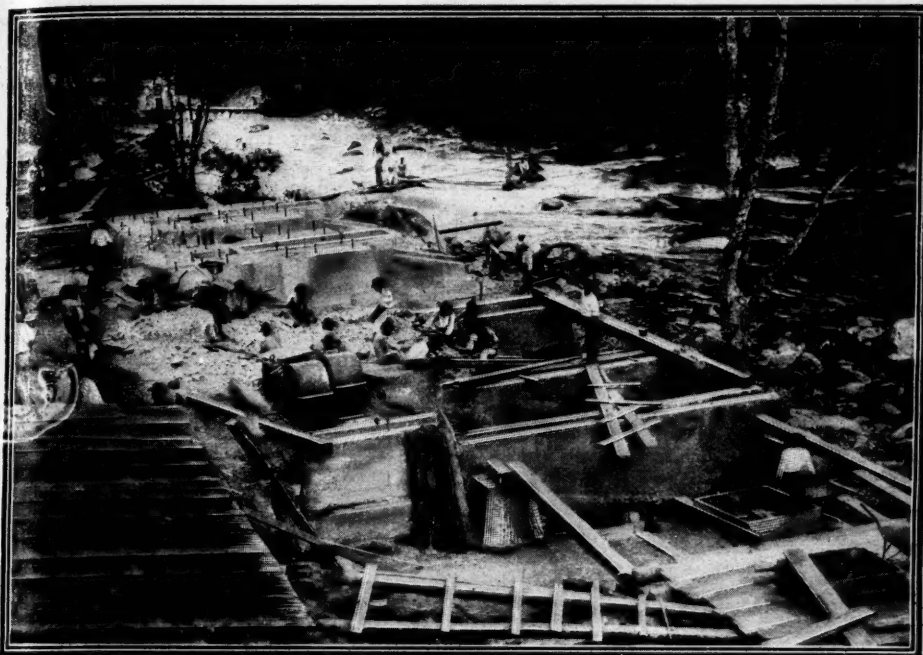


AN ELECTRICAL EQUIPMENT IN THE SANTO DOMINGO MINE, PERU.

(This machinery was brought from New York via Colon to Mollendo; thence by rail to a station on the plateau, and thence one hundred and fifty miles by mule back over the Cordillera at a height of 17,000 feet.)

No better illustration could be given of the sudden loss of trade to which this or any country is liable when these republics choose to put up a tariff wall against us than our experience in the flour trade. Not only did we feel secure in the Brazilian market for this commodity, but we looked forward to a constantly increasing sale. The sequel is given in the words of an American Consul formerly stationed at Rio Janeiro:

Not many years ago a fine fleet of American clippers was engaged in carrying big cargoes of



THE INSTALLATION OF A 40,000-HP. ELECTRICAL PLANT FOR LONG DISTANCE TRANSMISSION TO RIO JANEIRO.

(This power is to be utilized for electric railways and industrial purposes.)

flour from Baltimore to this port. Now it comes here with an occasional scrap cargo of coal, lumber, or rosin, carried at ruinous rates. It is true that the rise of the Argentine wheat industry made the downfall of the fleet certain, but it is also true that while American flour has already become rare in the Brazilian market, the English capitalist is already reaping the rich returns that the new situation offers. What we are losing, or rather have lost, in the trade, is being fully picked up by the English factories established on the spot, whose owners look with equanimity on 20 per cent. profits on money invested.

To return to our list, we find that glass and bottles are now manufactured, porcelain,—which promises to become a most important industry,—stoves, implements, nails, coffee machinery, chemicals, gloves, perfumery, watches, and warships. These items have been selected intentionally to show the great diversity of Brazil's industries, since the list could not be given in full; and though no other republic on the continent can as yet compare with Argentina and Brazil in this respect, the indications are that all have caught a like spirit of enterprise.

Chile, of course, on account of her enormous nitrate industry, has less incentive to

foster manufacturing than her sister republics, and can boast of a larger free list, probably, than any other country in Latin America. Not only is she increasing her imports from Europe, but has recently aided in the establishment of a line of steamships to Japan, and looks forward to large imports from that country of textiles and other Oriental manufactures in exchange for minerals, fruits, and raw products. Nevertheless, Chile's list of domestic industries is considerable and likely to increase.

THE SMALLER REPUBLICS.

Of the remaining republics, Peru, as we have seen, is well launched upon a manufacturing career, though the recent internal developments have stimulated imports of building and construction materials. Uruguay and Venezuela are also encouraging home industries, and Ecuador, in September last, passed a law granting so many privileges to native manufacturers that foreign goods in certain lines, with the additional obstacle of a high tariff, will practically be excluded. Venezuela, as the reader is no doubt aware, has gone into manufacturing as a national

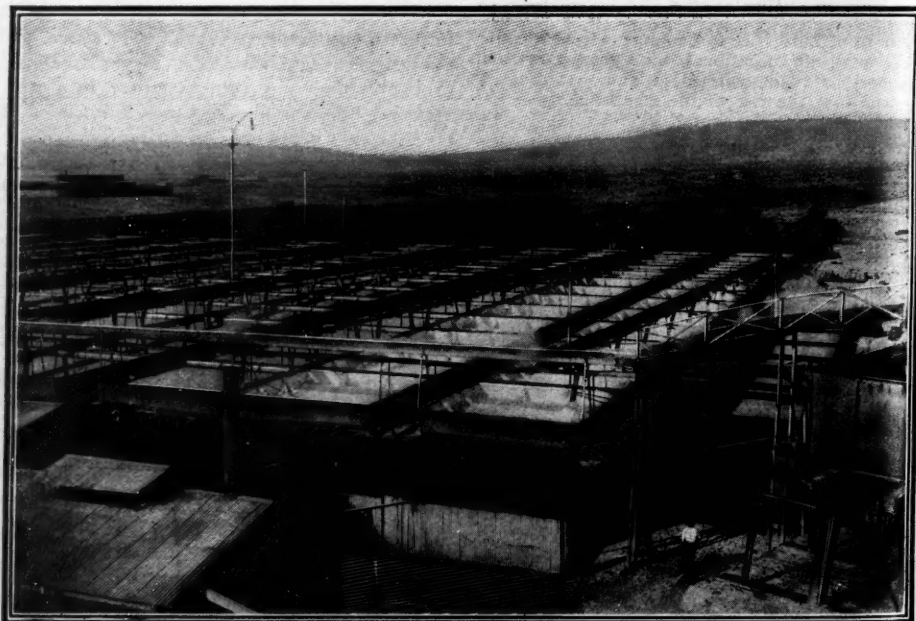
enterprise, to the dismay of Venezuelans and foreigners alike; yet much as one may criticize the President for the ruthlessness of his policy, it cannot be denied that the new factories, such as the recently established match factory in Carácas, are well equipped to supply the needs of the entire country.

Bolivia and Paraguay, equally from their isolation and the more primitive condition of the people, have shown little progress as yet, and Colombia is comparatively as backward; yet it is interesting to learn that the last, after having educated the lower classes to the use of wheat bread, has recently doubled the duty on imported flour, and hopes even to force the native production of wheat, so as to supply domestically the demand which she has created. Successful or not, this valiant attempt to foster a national industry on the part of one of the most conservative countries in all South America may be regarded as a fair indication of the future progress of that continent.

It is not to be denied that many of these industries, even in Brazil and Argentina, seem, in a sense, unnatural, and that the consumer is not always the gainer either directly or indirectly, especially where official corruption exists, and monopolies are counte-

nanced. But as an offset to this, and a guaranty, as it were, for the future, when an enlightened public will no longer submit to inflated prices and the burdens too often borne for the benefit of a wasteful government or a few favored capitalists, South America has invaluable assets in her natural resources, and in the unlimited latent energy in mountain streams and waterfalls.

Coal, of course, has hitherto been regarded as the chief source of power, and since few accessible deposits have as yet been found, it has commonly been supposed that manufacturing in the southern continent could never be established upon a true economic basis. But the search for coal has not been fruitless, and at least half of the South American countries are operating mines. Chile, with her excellent deposits at Lota, south of Valparaíso, can boast of an annual output of 400,000 tons, part of which finds its way to the factories of the cities and part to the bunkers of passing steamships. Brazil has various deposits now being worked; but the product is of a uniformly low grade and is used principally in smelting. Argentina has been less successful than Brazil, but Peru shows indications of possessing large deposits, not only of bituminous coal, but of anthracite, as well



ONE OF THE MANY GREAT NITRATE PLANTS IN NORTHERN CHILE.
(Iodine is the most valuable by-product, and is extracted in the process of refining the nitrate.)



INTERIOR OF A PERUVIAN SUGAR REFINERY NEAR TRUJILLO.

(This is the property of W. R. Grace & Co., of New York, who own a number of other refineries in the district, as well as extensive plantations.)

as of lignite, the commonest coal heretofore discovered in South America. Peru, in fact, is very optimistic regarding the development of her coal regions, which already supply the famous Cerro de Pasco copper mines. Colombia, also, has several mines now in operation, one of which is supplying a small but flourishing iron industry. Iron, indeed, seems fairly well distributed over the whole continent, and the only obstacle to its production has been this very lack of fuel. But a new factor, as we shall presently see, offers to solve this difficulty for all time.

Wood, of course, the most primitive fuel, has long been depended upon in many sections for the supply of the smaller factories, but at least two substitutes, besides coal, are now promised. One is petroleum, which is found in various districts, particularly in Peru, which produced 7,000,000 gallons per annum before the recent "strike" in the Lake Titicaca region. The other is alcohol, which is already largely produced from sugar cane, though not, as yet, at a sufficiently low cost to make it available. A new process of manufacture, however, is reported from Colom-

bia,—viz., its distillation from coffee shells, heretofore a waste product,—a process said to be inexpensive enough to permit of the use of alcohol as a fuel in all localities where coffee is grown. One wonders if other waste products may not be susceptible to similar treatment.

SPLENDID WATER POWER.

The future of manufacturing in South America, however, is undoubtedly dependent upon the tremendous water power so lavishly distributed by Nature. Upon the Andean slopes, in the virgin wilds of the Guianas, and throughout the extensive mountain system of central Brazil exist countless streams whose potentiality will yet minister to the needs of a vast and ever-increasing population. No estimate could be given of the energies now going to waste upon the eastern escarpments of the Andes. In regions peculiarly adapted to settlers from the manufacturing nations of Europe, and soon to be made accessible by the various waterways connecting either with the Paraná to the south, or with the gigantic Amazon to the

north, regions incalculably rich in forest and mineral resources, exist ideal sites for the industrial towns and cities that may yet arise.

Among the better known waterfalls of the interior are the cataracts of the upper Orinoco, the falls of the São Francisco, the remarkable series of rapids on the Madeira River, and the stupendous cataract of Guayra, between Brazil and Paraguay. But greater than these, and rivaling even Niagara and the Victoria of Africa, are the Falls of Iguazú, upon the river of the same name, a few miles above its junction with the Paraguay. This magnificent fall, as yet scarcely accessible to the tourist, and almost unknown outside of the La Plata country, is undoubtedly the greatest source of power upon the entire continent, a power that if converted into electrical energy could supply the industries, light and traction of a vast city. The city, of course, has yet to appear, but its advent is assured even though the promising iron ores of Paraguay should never be developed. But bearing in mind the new electrical process of smelting now successfully introduced into Germany, one can easily imagine the establishment of a great industry in this southern wilderness in iron smelting alone, a tropical Pittsburg, lacking only the smoke and cloudy skies of our northern city.

The best examples of applied water power as yet are furnished by Brazil and Peru. In Brazil both Rio Janeiro and San Paulo are utilizing this form of power for the electric railroads and lighting, as well as in local factories, and new concessions are being applied for. Lima, the capital of Peru, has been particularly enterprising in this respect, and has so much power at her command that her industries will soon be independent of coal or other fuels. Chile has planned similar installations for the supply of Valparaiso and Santiago, and even Bogotá, the hermit city, has cast envious eyes upon her beautiful fall of Tequendama.

Such, in brief, are South America's possible resources in fuel and power, upon each nation's use of which, even as much as upon a protective tariff or the privileges granted by a paternal government, or even upon abundant labor, will depend her economic advancement, her ultimate prosperity and enlightenment.

WHAT OF THE FUTURE?

But will South America be content simply to provide for her own wants; has she no chance of winning a foreign market as well?

In other words, is this industrial evolution to come to an abrupt end? To this there can be but one answer. Already, indeed, we find an important export trade established in certain manufactured products, especially from River Plate ports, a brief review of which proves no less astonishing than the statistics already presented. In meat products, of course, a great advance would be expected, though one is hardly prepared to hear that Uruguay has increased her exports of beef extract (principally the famous Liebig product) more than 100 per cent. in five years, and Argentina more than 400 per cent. in 10 years. The latter's flour and butter exports show an even more surprising increase,—viz., of from \$1,816,000 and \$119,000 respectively, in 1895 to \$5,186,000 and \$2,081,000 in 1905,—especially when it is remembered that 15 years ago the United States and Europe were the exporters and Argentina an importer. No less remarkable is the leap in quebracho tanning extract from 402 metric tons in 1895, valued at \$38,000, to 29,408 tons in 1905, valued at \$2,343,000. No other South American country, of course, can furnish an example parallel to this, though Chile has a large and increasing output of iodine and borates, the value of the former being but slightly less than \$2,000,000 during the past year.

It may be objected that these are not manufactures in the common commercial acceptance of the term, and that a nation may roughly prepare her raw products for foreign use without proving her ability to compete in the production of factory goods. On the other hand, it must be borne in mind that the initiative in most of the industries enumerated in this article has been taken by the foreigner, who brings with him not only his money and his brain, but his northern energy as well, and is often stimulated to greater activity by the very abundance of the opportunities with which he is surrounded. Nor need he lack capital if he has ability, experience, and enterprise, for the native, if slow, is by no means lacking in shrewdness; and even now in the city of Buenos Ayres, and to a lesser degree in other cities, one can find an astonishing amount of capital available if the project be a safe one and the inducements sufficiently liberal.

Argentina, as has been pointed out, produces more than a quarter of the world's supply of wool; she has an immense cotton area only waiting to be developed. Why, one asks, should she not prove herself competent

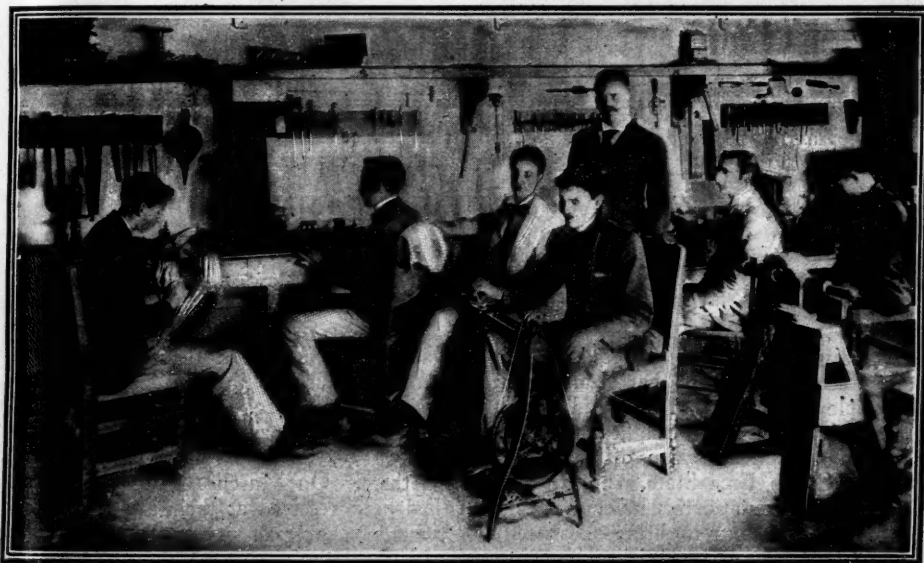
in time to produce a portion of the world's textiles as well as of the raw materials? And if she be indeed capable of competing in this trade what shall we say of the leather industry, in which she possesses advantages superior to any other country upon earth, since the hides and the tannin are both produced at a minimum cost and are to be had in inexhaustible quantities, whereas our own country, restricted in its supply of hides, is absolutely dependent upon these far-distant quebracho forests for the means wherewith to tan them.

Neither would it require a very imaginative mind to believe Argentina and Chile capable of developing a vast wine trade, or that Ecuador and Venezuela might compete with Europe in the manufactures of chocolate, since both the raw cacao and sugar can be produced in unlimited quantities; or that Brazil's forests of bamboo may in time help to supply the world's growing demand for paper, even as her new fiber plant (*Canhania Brazilensis* Perini) promises a cheap

but serviceable substitute for linen. Nor can one ignore Brazil's great manganese deposits,* which, combined with her iron, may create a vast steel industry in time,—provided that the smelting problem can be solved,—while Rio Janeiro's dockyards may yet vie with those of Europe in the construction of steel ships.

Of one thing we are assured: With the exception of the precious metals and certain sections of forest, South America holds her vast natural heritage almost intact, whereas the United States, as Mr. James J. Hill so recently warned us, has been as prodigal in her methods as a spendthrift heir, and equally blind to the future. May it not be, therefore, that these southern neighbors are fortunate in their very backwardness, and that a generation hence they may find themselves with unimpaired resources, and a world-market clamorous for the products of their forests and mines and mills?

* Brazil exported 115,000 tons of manganese to the United States in 1905, and our steel plants are yearly more dependent on her supply.



TELEPHONE REPAIR SHOP IN VENEZUELA.

(Native youths are fast learning to become mechanics, and many are acquiring a technical education before assuming their chosen trades.)



OPERATING ROOM OF THE SÉVERANCE HOSPITAL (PRESBYTERIAN), AT SEOUL, KOREA.

THE CIVILIZING WORK OF MODERN CHRISTIAN MISSIONS.

BY CYRUS C. ADAMS.

IF we were asked to illustrate the spirit of practical humanity that is an impelling principle in the work of thousands of Christian missionaries we might mention the Roman Catholic Mission of Saint-Trudon in the Congo Free State. For over three years the fathers at this mission have been paying the natives to bring to them poor people stricken with an incurable disease.* The mission stands on the broad pathway that "sleeping sickness" followed 2000 miles up the Congo and on to Victoria Nyanza, smiting about 200,000 victims, not one of whom recovered. In May, 1903, the fathers, seeing these afflicted ones dying in the roads, conceived the idea that if they should get them together they might miti-

gate the sufferings of their last days, and perhaps reduce, by this segregation, the ravages of the plague. From that day to this they have been paying 3 francs 75 centimes, —about 75 cents,—for every patient brought to them. On March 16 last 2049 persons had been received at their isolated hospital, where 15 women prepared the food, and the gentle ministrations of the sisters and fathers are bestowed till a decent burial marks the last act of heroic devotion.

AFRICAN RAILROAD BUILDERS TRAINED IN MISSION SCHOOLS.

On September 1 last a railroad was completed around the rapids in the upper Congo, and this great undertaking illustrates another phase of philanthropic missionary effort. At Accra, on the Gold Coast, about

* It was reported in November last that a cure had been discovered for "sleeping sickness" and was being applied with much success.



CHURCH AT BLANTYRE, NYASALAND, BUILT BY
NATIVE ARTISANS.

1200 miles above the Congo mouth, is a famous mission station that has long taught trades to the natives. The Congo Free State took into its service many of these skilled black artisans, trained in carpentry, blacksmithing, brickmaking, masonry, and other practical arts, and sent them to the upper river to supply the skilled labor needed in this railroad enterprise. Under them worked hundreds of the Congo boys, trained in the same trades in the Free State mission schools, but not yet so experienced and efficient as the men from Accra. It was their duty also to supervise the common laborers, 2000 to 3000 in number, who did the rough work of railroad construction. So it was the disciplined skill as well as the brawn and

muscle of African workmen that pushed this railroad through the Congo forests. Only about 100 white men participated.

NEW CHANNELS OF MISSIONARY INFLUENCE.

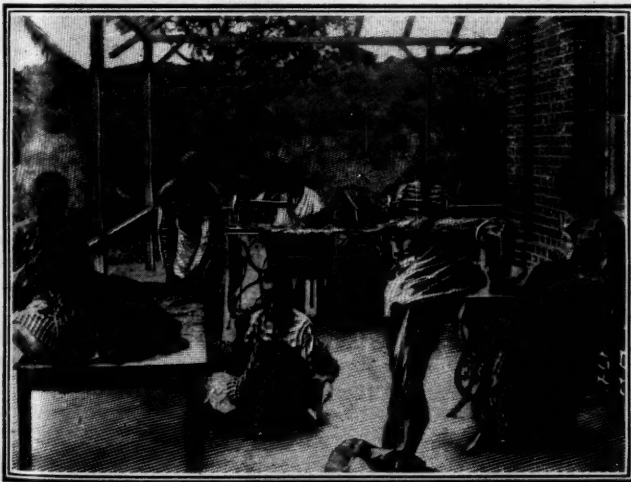
Such incidents might be multiplied indefinitely and each would be evidence of the highest value relating to the importance and the success of some comparatively new phases of missionary influence. The ministrations of the old-time missionary were mainly in-



LIME KILN ON THE UPPER CONGO.

tellectual and spiritual. He taught barbarians to read so that they might spell out the Scriptures he translated for them. He went among them to win converts, and his first and highest duty was to preach the Gospel. He has not changed a whit in his conception of his high calling, but he has

found new ways to make himself more effective in it. He has discovered that the seeds of religious teaching thrive best in soil where some elements of our material civilization have been planted, watered, and coaxed to grow; that if he meets with some success in training untutored peoples to habits of industry, he has laid a pioneer foundation upon which he may deliver his Gospel message with more satisfying results; that industrial training is worth more to men and women on the



NATIVE TAILORESSES AT NEW ANTWERP ON THE UPPER CONGO.



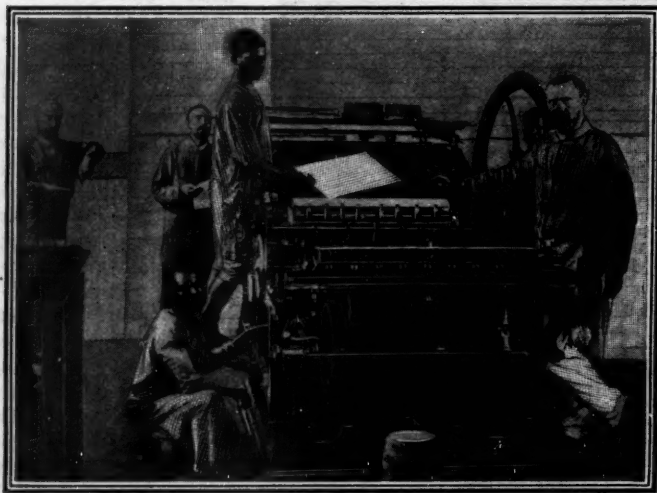
ROMAN CATHOLIC MISSION AT LULUABURG, CONGO FREE STATE.

lowest rungs of the ladder than intellectual education; and that, if he may make his people sharers in some of the fundamental blessings of civilization, if science may even dimly illumine their dark lives, if the boon of modern medical practice and surgery may be brought within their reach, he has won a vantage ground upon which to discharge the

duties of his sacred office that was never his before.

These are the practical, humanitarian aspects of most missionary enterprise to-day. Long ago they were incipient features of the work; but it is only within the past quarter of a century that industrial education has had its remarkable growth, that

the protecting arm of the missionary has been thrown around the orphan, the foundling, the blind, and the deaf mute, and that medical science at the missionary station has begun to confer its blessings upon the least fortunate races of men. The model farm is now seen among the savages of New Guinea, black men press clay into molds and produce on the Congo the counterpart of the brick-yards of Haverstraw; women in one of our pictures are running sewing machines within a stone's throw of



PRINTING OFFICE AT BOMA, CAPITAL OF THE CONGO FREE STATE.

the spot where their cannibal fathers pushed canoes from the shore and gave Stanley his hardest fight in Africa. Where the church rises, the hospital is its concomitant. The mission station is built upon a basis of broad philanthropy; and upon the same foundation are rising the higher schools and even colleges in regions prepared for them. The missionary is helping to refashion the life of the backward races. We must not overlook the large participation of some of



SCHOOL OF THE BAPTIST MISSIONARY UNION, ON THE LOWER CONGO.

the civilized governments in this work of regeneration. The Congo Free State, for example, has its trade schools, its orphan colonies, and its hospitals, as well as the Evangelical and Roman Catholic missions scattered over its wide domain.

VAST CONTRIBUTIONS TO INDUSTRIAL UP-BUILDING.

General statements on such a subject make little impression unless fortified by ample evidence. We know that important agencies

at home and in Europe are promoting industrial training as a part of educational systems; but we may not have heard that industrial training has been an established feature of hundreds of missions throughout the world while many of the Occidental nations have done little more than to discuss the preliminaries. If we look into the matter we shall find the facts very fascinating, and almost bewildering in number. The mass of this testimony is enormous in the reports of colonial governments and of missionary societies; in recent books

such as Dennis' "Christian Missions and Social Progress,"*

(from which we are permitted to reproduce many of the illustrations of this article), which is packed with testimony, and in thousands of photographs, like those recently published by the Congo Free State, showing not only the missions, churches, schools, and hospitals, but also the trade schools, printing offices, sewing rooms, brickyards, fields and other industrial aspects where the natives are working at their new



AFRICAN NATIVES LEARNING THE CARPENTERS' TRADE.

* Three volumes. Revell.



CARPENTER SHOP, BOYS' HIGH SCHOOL, MADAGASCAR.
(London Missionary Society.)

trades or tilling the soil by modern methods.

It is unfortunate that so many books, written from the standpoint of the evangelical denominations, do scant justice to the great achievements in this field of the Roman Catholic missions, which have had their full share of successful pioneering in this work of sowing the seeds of civilization.

TEACHING CONGO CHILDREN USEFUL TRADES.

Let us glance, for a moment, at the Lulua-burg mission, a thousand miles from the mouth of the Congo, the scene of one of our illustrations, and a type of many of the best stations. The grounds are neatly kept, the schoolhouse with the little cupola, the hospital, the church, and other buildings not seen in the picture, are commodious. Good roads are maintained.

The fathers here love most of all to have hundreds of children under their influence. "Give us the children," they say. "Their parents are so fixed in primitive and barbarous ways that it is hard to change them. So we wish to gather the children around us that we may mold their plastic minds and train their hands. We may help in this way to make the future fathers and mothers very different from those of to-day, and how vast will be their influence!"

In no sense do they neglect the adults, but their hopes are chiefly based upon the boys and girls from five to seventeen years of age. These children fill the school and workshops. No walls or regulations compel their presence, but a large variety of work and play and unfailing kindness and patience keep most of them there till their education is completed. A little reading, writing, arithmetic, and geography, well sandwiched with music, complete the schoolroom exercises; but every day for years they are absorbing knowledge as infants do. They learn to read the clock, to distinguish the days and the months. They receive small coins for doing certain kinds of work, and each must keep an account of his receipts and expenditures. They are familiarized with many conveniences of life and methods of work, and finally all are required to specialize in one or another branch of labor. Most of the manual trades are taught to the boys, sewing and all branches of housewifery to the girls, and there are regular hours when every one works in the fields or gardens.

PROGRESS SINCE STANLEY'S DAY.

In 1879, Stanley could not induce a Congo native to carry a pound of freight or do other work for him. He had to send to Liberia and to Zanzibar for labor. To-day

there are tens of thousands of the Congoese voluntarily serving the government, the trading companies, and the missionaries for hire; and many hundreds of young men are going from the mission schools into service as skilled artisans, overseers of labor, teachers, and in other capacities. Africa's own sons and daughters must themselves work out her material regeneration, for most of the manual labor must be performed by them; and one of the greatest facts of to-day is the participation of great multitudes of African natives in the reclamation of their continent.

A while ago, the Protestant natives of Uganda put 750,000 bricks, which missionaries had taught them to make, into the walls of a cathedral that holds over 3000 persons.



Y. M. C. A. BUILDING AT MADRAS, INDIA.

(Built by native labor.)

Brickmaking is now a large industry across tropical Africa from sea to sea. The church at Blantyre is perhaps the handsomest specimen of trained native handicraft, but it is not the largest, nor does it illustrate any better than scores of other structures the attainments that the blacks have made in the building arts under missionary tuition. The blacks at Blantyre who built that church to the driving of the last nail were the sons of men who had never seen a white man; but they had the capacity and it was evoked in the missionary trade schools of the Free Church of Scotland, to which it is a splendid monument.

THE WINNING OF AFRICA'S RULERS.

We see the native labor trained in the trade schools at Accra in demand among the French, German, Spanish, Belgian, and Portuguese regions of the west coast and on the upper Congo in the heart of Africa. We see industrial education turning out its artisans by the many hundreds, from the Lovedale Institute of Cape Colony to the Protestant missions of Liberia; and we observe that this civilizing work is greatly promoted by the hold the missionaries have gained upon some of the most influential native rulers. Among them is Khama, King of the Bamangwato, famous for the peace, order, temperance, and industry that now distinguish all his people; Lewanika, King of Barotse, who asked the present King of England, when he visited that country, to send him more men to teach his people carpentry and other trades, so that they might advance more rapidly in civilization; Apolo Kagwa, the Prime Minister of Uganda, whose controlling thought is to work for the uplifting and civilizing of his people; Daudi Chwa, the little King of that remarkable country, who is being trained as a Christian prince; and Andereya Luhaga, King of Bunyoro, who has thrown himself heart and soul into the work of reforming the lives and the conditions of

his people, crushed to earth as they had been by the terrible tyranny of his father. It is a great boon to Africa that the plant of civilization, grown from seed the missionaries sowed, is being nurtured by some of the most powerful natives of the continent.

RACES ENLIGHTENED AND ENERGIZED.

We have given this much space to Africa because the larger part of it, 30 years ago, was the most consolidated mass of pure barbarism, unrelieved by a single ray of light, in the world. But the same work of enlightenment, through improvement of the material conditions of barbarous peoples, is advancing

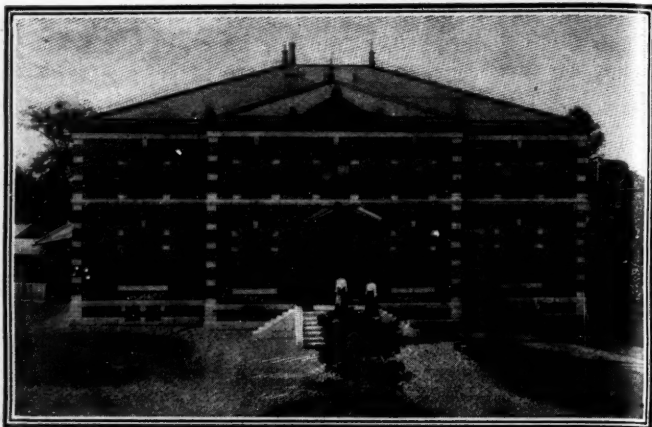
in the most remote parts of the mission field. The culture of garden and farm, iron smelting and manufactures, the planting of rubber, the banana, and the cocoanut tree are now enlisting the energies of New Guinea cannibals formerly given to orgie and foray. Industrial communities are thriving among the debased aborigines of Australia. Good houses and home-made furniture are among the fruits of industrial training in the Pacific islands. Some of these islanders do their own printing, and commerce has grown through the mat and hat making and other trades which the missionaries have introduced.

Christian teachers among some of the Canadian Indians have had marked success in the introduction of helpful trades. This is also the case among the South American Indians; and who has not heard of the sheep farming and other industries that have greatly improved the condition of the natives at the extreme southern end of South America? The industrial feature is very important

among the missions scattered over Turkey in Asia, where many of the western methods of shoe and cabinet making, book binding, tailoring, carpentry, and so on, have been introduced, and missionaries have even been able to suggest improvements in the native industries, as in silk embroideries. Thus western ideas are helping a little to alleviate material conditions in regions where misgovernment and persecution have nearly stifled all joy in life.

We should not expect that the industrial phase of mission work would have the same virility and the potency for good in China

and Japan that it has exhibited in barbarous lands. These great Oriental countries developed a very advanced type of civilization under which they brought their own arts and industries to a high degree of perfection. Even in this day of China's awakening she is more eager for the intellectual and scientific than for the manual training of the west. Several efforts on the part of British and American societies to introduce model farms especially devoted to fruits have met with success. In some of the cities they have



MIYAGI GIRLS' SCHOOL, SENDAI, JAPAN.
(Reformed Church of the United States.)



DAIRY AND GROUP OF MILK DELIVERY BOYS, AT INDUSTRIAL HOME,
NORTH JAPAN COLLEGE, SENDAI.
(Reformed Church of the United States.)

long been teaching western methods of printing and weaving, and one of the Methodist missions at Chungking, on the upper Yangtse, reports that it is graduating boys as carpenters, cabinet-makers, and tailors. The industrial feature is just being introduced into Korea; and it is certainly thriving in Japan in schools for women and the mission orphan asylums.

THE BROAD MINISTRY OF MEDICINE AND SURGERY.

But human suffering makes the whole world kin, and every part of the globe is eager now to have the western arts of medicine and surgery. The grandest humanitarian feature of Christian missions is the medical phase. Its great success has stimulated governments to follow the example of the humble preachers of the Gospel. The largest building in Dar es Salaam, the capital of German East Africa, is the government hospital, to which afflicted natives come from far away, where the great boon of treatment by European methods of healing is theirs without price. The great brick hospital at Boma, the capital of the Congo Free State, is the special pride of the government, which also has its hospitals and dispensaries at every station throughout its immense domain, which, whatever criticisms have been made, is recognized as the part of barbarous Africa that, thus far, has made the largest development.

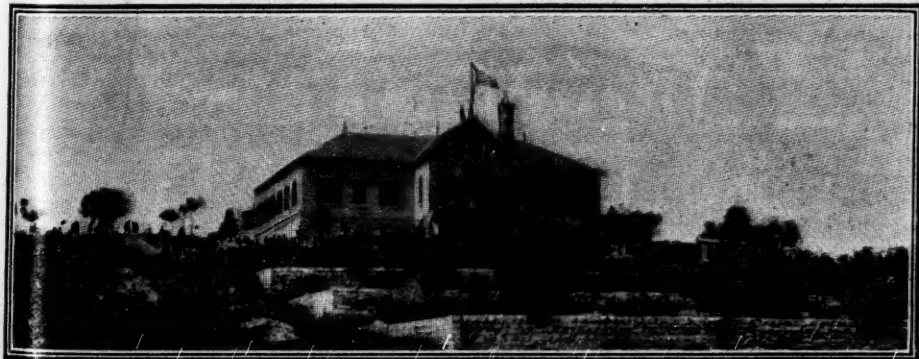
The first medical mission is said to have been conducted by a Dutch physician in the East Indies from 1624 to 1638. The growth of the movement was very slow and it was not till the latter part of the nineteenth century that it became important.

Livingstone's many years of gentle ministrations to the sick, and Arnot's journey over half of tropical Africa with nothing to pay his way excepting his box of medicines, did much to call attention to the value of medical practice as a beneficent feature of missionary service. For 30 years this new phase of the work has grown by leaps and bounds till it is found in every corner of the earth covered by the mission field.

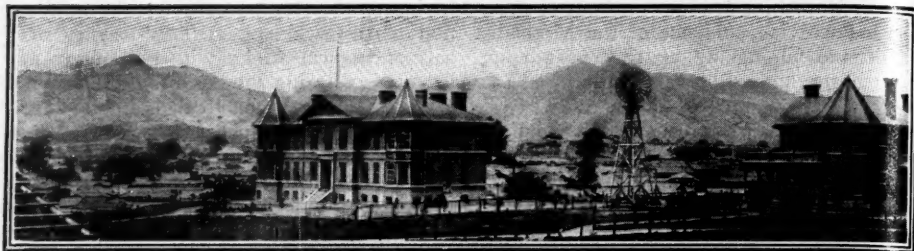
The latest statistics of the evangelical societies show that there are now 400 hospitals, besides many dispensaries, with nearly 800 medical missionaries, of whom 250 are women; and in the hospitals, dispensaries, polyclinics, and native houses an average of about 2,300,000 patients are annually treated. This does not include the Roman Catholics, who make a large feature of medical missions.

No words could exaggerate the usefulness and success of this work. The missionary physician is eagerly welcomed in every land. His influence is far-reaching, for he carries the best gifts of medical science to the neglected, he revolutionizes native practice, and he supplants the terrors of the barbarous quack. It is, under the law, a misdemeanor to practice the arts of the fetich doctor in the Congo Free State and Rhodesia, but the medical missionary is doing more than the law to destroy baleful superstitions that have held millions in degrading bondage.

Even in advanced countries like India, where there are many native physicians schooled in western therapeutics, the medical service is woefully inadequate to the need. The most competent Indian doctors and surgeons have more work than they can do at high rates. The poor must suffer; but every-



THE ORPHANAGE AT DAR ES SALAAM, NEAR SIDON, SYRIA.
(Conducted by American Presbyterians.)



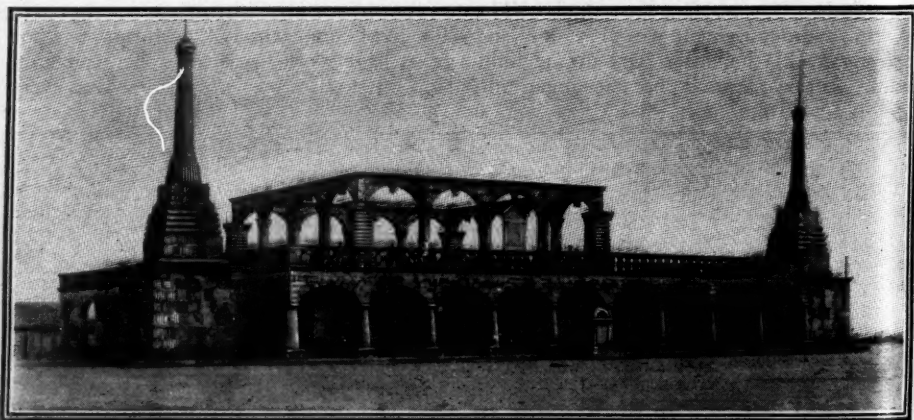
THE SEVERANCE HOSPITAL AT SEOUL, KOREA.
(Under Presbyterian auspices.)

where the widest blessings of the medical missions fall upon the poor. The latest Africa book, "Uganda to Kartoum," has a photograph of about a hundred patients waiting their turn as a single physician treats their cases. There is need for good surgeons as well as good doctors, and women physicians are especially important. In India there are 50,000,000 women who are practically cut off from the outside world, and the women practitioners who may go among them are still too few. They are training hundreds of native women nurses every year, but the need far exceeds the supply.

The missionary finds everywhere that his medical service greatly promotes all phases of his work. It gives him the best of opportunities for his special calling; and a cured patient often brings not only his family, but also his whole village to the mission.

So the missionary is not only the messen-

ger of the Christian faith but also the forerunner of material progress. He is paving the way for civilization. By industrial education he is helping the laggard races both to help themselves and to enter into larger and closer business relations with the rest of the world, so that they shall partake to no small extent of the benefits coming from reciprocally advantageous dealings with other countries; and his life of love and self-sacrifice is bearing no better fruit, from a worldly point of view, than the alleviation he brings to suffering, the years his medical skill adds to many a human life, and the useful men and women, who once were little waifs and strays, without hope or friends till he gathered them into his fold and did his best to give them strength of character and attainment through which they may stand alone, far stronger than their fathers ever were to help themselves and others.



GREAT FAMILY TOMB OF A PRIME MINISTER, MADAGASCAR.
(The work on this building was done by native Christian masons as a punishment during the times of persecution in Madagascar.)

SEVENTY YEARS OF SYSTEMATIC GIVING.

A PIONEER IN MODERN PHILANTHROPY—THE BARONESS BURDETT-COUTTS.

BY JOSEPH BARTLETT SEABURY.

I dined at Burdett's yesterday. Dinner at 7 precisely; everything stately and old-fashioned. The house charming, the dining-room looking into delightful gardens, with much old timber, beyond St. James' Park.

WHEN Benjamin Disraeli wrote thus in a letter to his sister (August 13, 1839), he had been in the House of Commons two years, having entered it the year his host had retired.

Sir Francis Burdett, whose hospitable house in St. James' Place was the leading social center of his day, and who so charmingly entertained "my dear, great friend," as Queen Victoria called Disraeli, was himself a man of most varied and fascinating personality. In his veins flowed the blood of a soldier of William the Conqueror's Guard, nor had seven centuries atrophied the chivalry of those heroic times. Sir Francis' parliamentary career began in the forty-seventh year of the reign of George III., and ended at the seventh milestone in the reign of Victoria. He was an uncompromising advocate of the freedom of speech. He denied the right of the House of Commons to imprison delinquents. The authorities ordered his arrest; he boldly resisted. The noble mansion in Piccadilly, where he was then living, suddenly became a castle, barricaded for three days against a regiment of Guards,—Sir Francis "the Cœur-de-Lion Knight" in valiant defense. Under enforced surrender this intrepid commoner, orator, reformer, patriot, was borne to prison, amid the acclaims of a vast concourse of people, "Burdett forever!" Napoleon at St. Helena reflected a sentiment not unsuited to the passion for democracy then growing,—“had I invaded England I would have made it a republic, with Sir Francis Burdett, the popular idol, at its head.”

Among the attractions of the Burdett dinners in Disraeli's time was Miss Burdett-Coutts, youngest daughter of the host, graceful in bearing, vivacious and cultured in conversation. Between the eccentric young politician and herself there sprang up a strong friendship, which covered a period of nearly

50 years, ending only with the death of Disraeli (Lord Beaconsfield), in 1881. In the commodious dining-room, from the window above which her father was dragged down a ladder on his way to the Tower, she whom the civilized world came to know as the Baroness Burdett-Coutts, entertained for 70 years the great and good of all callings: sovereigns, princes and princesses, statesmen and churchmen, ambassadors and soldiers, scholars and reformers, musicians and artists.

From youth to womanhood the Baroness enjoyed the friendship of the Duke of Wellington, who was her frequent guest and who watched with great interest the first 15 years of the development of her charitable career.

Germane to this fact is an entry in the journal of Phillips Brooks for May 22, 1883, in which he writes of dining at the house of the Baroness, where he met the Archbishop of Canterbury and Mrs. Benson, the Dean of Westminster and Mrs. Bradley, Lord Shaftesbury, Sir F. Leighton, Sir Thomas Brassey and Lady Brassey, the Marquis of Salisbury, etc., a distinguished company, in which, as it so often happened, the great problems that lay near to her heart were represented,—the church, the state, the poor,—philanthropy in its broadest sense.

How the cognomen "Coutts" became associated with that of Burdett in the familiar name of the Baroness points to an interesting ancestry. As far back as 1272 we find the names of Coult, Colt, and Cowtes. Two centuries later, in the reign of Edward IV., Thomas Colt owned estates in Suffolk and Essex. Still another century passes and William Coutts emerges into view, a cadet of the Auchintoul family, provost of Montrose, "a sagacious northern laird." His grandson, Patrick, became a merchant in Edinburgh and died there in 1704, leaving £2500, a goodly sum for those days. By the mercantile acumen of his eldest son, John, the financial prosperity of the Coutts family crystallized. But his son Thomas surpassed all his ancestors in business sagacity, and founded the famous Coutts Bank. He was a man of

great independence of character, of courtly manners, an engaging conversationalist, a lover of the drama, a royal host. Of his three daughters, known as the "Three Graces," the two elder married, respectively, the Marquis of Bute (the ancestor of "Lothair"), and the Earl of Guildford, while the youngest married Sir Francis Burdett, whose fifth daughter, Angela Georgina, born April 25, 1814, is the subject of this sketch.

Into the hands of Thomas Coutts' second wife fell the large fortune of her husband. Although she married again, becoming the Duchess of St. Albans, she bequeathed the entire property of Thomas Coutts to his youngest granddaughter, Miss Angela Burdett. With a high sense of honor and with fine discrimination, the Duchess, being herself without issue, left her fortune to the young woman to whom she was bound by no ties of blood, but whom she trusted, absolutely, to administer it wisely and dispassionately. That her wisdom was fully justified an affluent and judicious beneficence fully declares.

Miss Burdett found herself at the age of 23 the sole possessor of a large fortune (supposed to be about \$15,000,000), and intrusted with the management of the Coutts Bank,—a position which she held for nearly 40 years. She accepted her inheritance not for her own use primarily, but for the wide constituency of needy souls created in God's image, and therefore commended to her for relief.

A NEW ERA IN PHILANTHROPY.

The year 1837 marks two notable events, the abolishment of the pillory in England, and the re-establishment of the Inquisition in Spain, unmistakable signs of the drift of two nations, the one toward an ever-expanding civilization, the other toward self-imposed servitude. But that memorable year stands out as the advent of a new age, unparalleled in the history of man, beginning with the accession of Victoria to the throne of England. In a less conspicuous manner, but with deepest significance, should that year be held eventful, for it marked the transmission of a great fortune into the hands of one who was to initiate a course of benevolence unknown before, alike in its power of suggestion, its comprehensive magnitude, and its vigorous pursuit. Two queens ascended their respective thrones, one to hold beneficent sway over her people, the other over her patrimony.

Philanthropy assumed new forms when

the Baroness entered upon her notable career as an organizer and dispenser of charity. The amelioration of those human woes, which existed within the limits of the London of her day, became her conscientious study, into which she put the best instincts of her broad nature, open to the counsels of the prudent and the prophetic. Thirty-four years later, when the gifts of this noble woman had mounted into the millions, the Queen created her Peeress of the Realm. It was the first time the title had been conferred upon a woman because of her own individual merit and achievement. All England and America exclaimed, "Well bestowed!" The same sign of universal approval greeted the words of the Prince of Wales (now King Edward VII.): "After my mother, the most remarkable woman in England is the Baroness Burdett-Coutts."

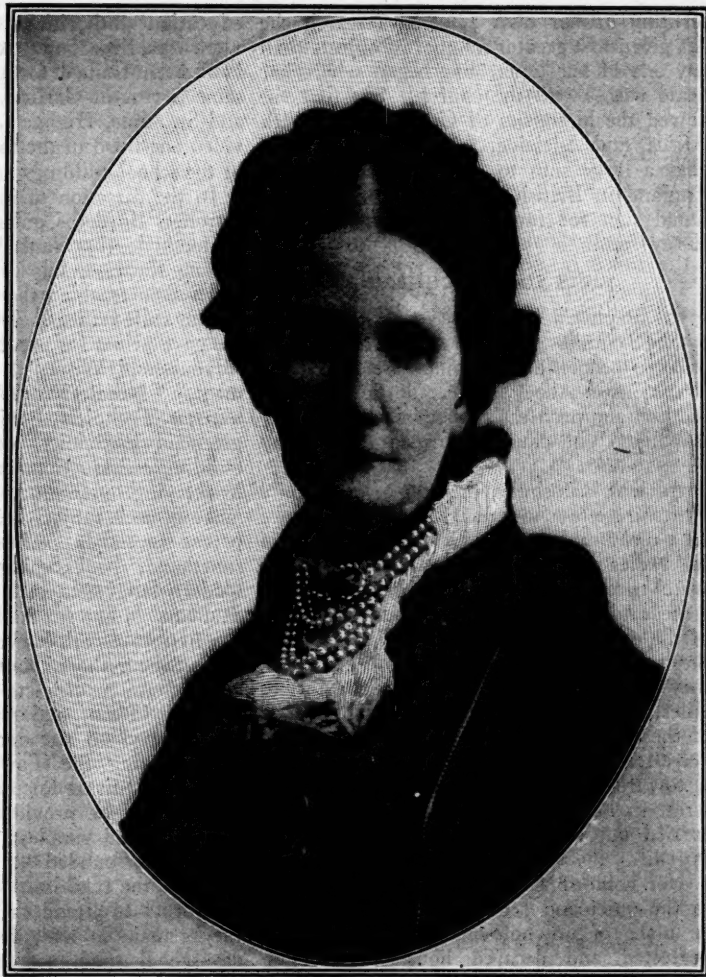
In the evolution of the high art of giving, a feature of our time, the Baroness Burdett-Coutts led the way. She excelled in the grace of philanthropic beneficence; she was a pioneer in one of the most responsible tasks of her time,—the distribution of immense sums of money in ways that were just and according to a law of wise proportion. Her power of initiative has been generally recognized. Her example is a striking rejoinder to the assertion that those who inherit great fortunes do not know how to use them. The Baroness proved in princely fashion that one form of investment of large amounts of money is in bettering the homes of the poor, turning a reeking purlieu into a sweet and clean abode; in building a great church with every accessory of education and instruction in all useful arts, and in diversion for body and mind. She maintained that such investments have a distinct dividend value; they return to the community in a higher standard of civic and social life, a finer type of manhood and womanhood, a better quality of workmanship, cleaner streets, stronger fabrics, purer homes. Her money paid no tribute to education for its own ends, none to patriotism nor religion for their own sake, but it was given as a helpmeet, an ally, a partner, unwilling to do its part without the co-operation of the recipient. It was her conviction that when full reciprocal action had been secured between giver and receiver the result was always salutary.

LIFTING UP LONDON'S POOR.

The gifts of the Baroness Burdett-Coutts to the London poor antedate those of George

Peabody by 10 years. In the year 1862, when the great financier was nearly 70 years old, he sat down to list his large possessions. He laid aside \$2,500,000 for improving lodging houses in London. He was led to take this step, in part, by the princely initiative of the Baroness, who had already transformed the fetid rookeries of Nova Scotia Gardens into model dwellings for 200 families. A young woman, undisciplined by years of contact with the world, assuming the onerous task of applying her great wealth to the improvement of her race, under the critical eye of her contemporaries, presents a vivid contrast to the man of mature experience and business training.

The Baroness made her initial study of the poor of London at first hand. In the midst of the repulsive sanitary conditions of the East End, without precedent or model, she began her splendid work of reform. Subsequently, in the companionship of Charles Dickens, she developed her eleemosynary plans, bringing them to an honorable climax. This far-seeing, chivalric, compassionate woman, from the ranks of the rich and the aristocratic, mingled with those living in squalor and direst misery. She pronounced as true Dickens' description of the filthy abominations which he found: "The home is perverted from being a haven of rest, which the man longs to get to, and is become an earthly hell, which he has cause to dread. The



THE BARONESS BURDETT-COUTTS, WHO DIED ON DECEMBER 30, 1906.

women are perverted to be unwomanly, and the men, for the most part, to be like the brute creation, with just enough humanity to make them more elaborate in brutishness." Much more might be quoted from Dickens' account of the East End, which the Baroness visited repeatedly and in so large a measure sought to relieve. Only one contemporary vied with her in visiting the poor,—the noble Earl of Shaftesbury, whose work for many years ran parallel with that of the Baroness, but whose limited financial resources did in no sense permit him to rival her in the bestowment of wealth upon the poor.

England's gracious Baroness had no peer in the vast variety of her gifts. Under the

scrutiny of her own personal research she has given to a greater number of objects than any one of her time. She began where her heart was,—with the church. She first endowed the bishoprics of Cape Town, South Africa, and Adelaide, Australia. Later she gave a large sum to endow the Church of England in British Columbia, and an additional sum for founding a bishopric and a clergy fund.

GIFTS TO THE CHURCH.

St. Stephen's Church, Westminster, built by the Baroness, ministers to a constituency of 1500 people, almost under the shadow of Westminster Abbey, so near do the poor and the rich approach each other in the great metropolis. The church represents an outlay of \$450,000.

Ancient Ramsbury, the seat of the family Wiltshire estate, witnessed a sad coincidence on a memorable day in January, 1844, when the bodies of Sir Francis and Lady Burdett were together borne to their last resting-place, and laid side by side beneath the altar of the old church. As the procession passed the peasants stood with heads uncovered; they were ranged along the roadside for 20 miles. To the restoration of the church, one of the oldest in England, the Baroness gave her attention. Not only did she give liberally toward this object; she aroused public interest in her project, which was completely carried out and the church thoroughly restored.

Her noble spirit of benevolence penetrated to the quiet and retired village of Baydon. In place of unwholesome dwellings and a neglected and decayed house of worship there grew up sanitary homes and an attractive church. Under the care of a faithful rector the parish at Baydon became a model of the parochial system. The Baroness, having learned that the congregation at Carlisle were worshipping in a storehouse for furniture, built for them a church with seating capacity for 600 people.

EDUCATION FOR THE ENGLISH MASSES.

The alliance between religion and education found a practical exponent in the Baroness. It was a favorite belief of hers that near the church the schoolhouse should have an important place. This idea was nobly carried out in the founding of St. Stephen's School, which became the standard of such schools in London, and in some respects in advance of the standards set by the

education authorities. Since those schools were established upward of 30,000 children have been trained for useful spheres. The same is true of Carlisle, Ramsbury, Baydon, and St. Anne, Highgate. The Baroness provided one-third of the money for the erection of the school buildings at St. Peter's, Stepney.

In the direction of industrial training the Baroness Burdett-Coutts was the forerunner of methods that rank high in our time as among the essentials of an education. She believed in teaching the "Common Things," as she called them. In one of her schools she gave prizes for papers on such subjects as "Household Work," "Household Management," "Needle Work," etc. In the Westminster Technical Institute instruction was given in mechanical drawing, applied art, building construction, carpentry and joinery, bricklaying, plumbing, cooking, and dress-making, each subject being taught by a competent specialist. Classes were formed in shorthand, bookkeeping, civil service, the modern languages, etc. She founded an Art Students' Home for Ladies. She was one of the first to establish evening schools for the poor. She gathered youths from the crowded and offensive districts of Spitalfields and Bethnal Green, and trained them for the royal navy or the merchant marine. In administering the Townshend Fund, upon which an institute for practical education was established, she provided education "of the humblest and simplest kind" for the very poor. She founded 50 scholarships. These enabled the children to whom they are awarded "to attend the institute free, while they remain in and, also, after leaving the day schools, and to receive the best instruction in technical art and on scientific or commercial subjects." This system of education for those restricted in pecuniary resources became the basis of a wider system now in vogue in many of our cities.

LIBERAL ENDOWMENTS OF RESEARCH.

Among the honors to be won at Oxford is the Burdett-Coutts scholarship. It provides that men devoted to any particular branch of art, science, or literature may pursue their studies beyond the prescribed curriculum limits. Building upon this idea, Johns Hopkins University has for 30 years given to its students ample scope for advanced studies. The Carnegie Institution of our time provides for similar advantages.

Distinctive lines of research were also marked out by the Baroness,—as archæology,

paleontology, and zoölogy. She provided means for the topographical survey of Jerusalem, for the verification and authentication of the Bible, employing agents to search out ancient manuscripts, some of which were used by the New Testament Revision Committee in 1870.

TEACHING KINDNESS TO ANIMALS.

The Baroness believed in a religion of sweetness and light, in the gospel of sunshine and cleanliness, in clean hands, and clean floors, and clean linen; in the orderly arrangement of the household; in flowers in the window as well as in the garden. The principle of a wholesome æstheticism appealed to her refined nature. These arts and amenities of life can be provided for the poor; this was a dictum of her noble soul. She distinctly taught that kindness to animals is "a fundamental part of education." To promote this end she offered prizes for essays on the treatment of animals; these rewards were in some cases distributed by the Queen in person. Her numerous domestic pets made her love of animals apparent to all visitors at Holly Lodge, the charming country seat founded by Thomas Coutts, the grandfather of the Baroness. There the dogs have a wide range of open field and tufted lawn. "Peter" and "Prince" have rights all are bound to respect, and are valued members of the social circle of that fascinating retreat. "Cocky," the consequential cockatoo; "Sir Garnet," the handsome goat, and the "Nubians" of the same tribe, are well-known "characters" at Holly Lodge.

In early life the Baroness could be seen riding horseback with her father, Sir Francis Burdett, an accomplished horseman. Her fondness for horses wrought out very merciful results. Under her humane leadership the Royal Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Animals was organized, and she advanced the work by her splendid gifts and official support. To quote her own words: "Knowing that a horse would rather die than not do his work, I can estimate what the animal endures when he needs to be goaded to the task he has to perform." The recent reaction from the cruel custom of killing birds for the sake of their plumage reverts to a sympathetic protest in her own utterance when she pronounced the use of hummingbirds as "a mode of ornament which must suggest a bloodstain in the delicate hat or cap."

Humanity to children held a foremost

place in her thought. The famous bill of 1889, making it lawful to remove children from the custody of incompetent parents and place them in the care of the state, was passed through her unwearied efforts.

HUMANITARIANISM IN THE CONCRETE.

Since the death of Lord Shaftesbury, "The Destitute Children's Dinner Society" has been under her superintendency. It gives 300,000 dinners each season, at a cost to the eater of a penny to a halfpenny each. The various societies emanating from her fertile brain are too numerous to be gathered into one catalogue, but such as these will suffice: "Boys' Brigades," "Boys' Clubs," "Sewing Schools," "Ragged Schools," "Weavers' Aid Association," "Colonization Aid Society," "St. Giles' Refuge." It would be impossible to overestimate the value of her services to the flower girls around Covent Garden Market, making the "Flower Girls' Brigade" one of the most noted and unique forms of modern charity. In order to provide wholesome food for the poor, she built Columbia Market at a cost of \$1,000,000. Owing to certain vexatious forms of opposition the project did not bring about the charitable ends the Baroness hoped would result. To improve the condition of the poor weavers of the East End, some she set up in new shops, others she sent abroad as emigrants. Emigration, to her view, was a happy solution of many of the ills of the crowded, feverish life in the slums of London. She sent large colonies of people to Halifax, N. S., to Canada, and to Australia.

SYSTEMATIC RELIEF IN IRELAND.

The Baroness once and again did much to help solve the Irish problem. As early as 1862 she put into operation her splendid scheme for the relief of the poor fishermen of Skibbereen, not by giving them money outright, but by a provisional loan of £50,000, and by opening a fishing school for training boys in the art of fishing and providing necessary fishing gear, boats, etc. She sent out supplies of corn, meal, sugar, etc., to be sold at lowest prices. Her policy was clearly outlined in her own words: "I sincerely hope the efforts made to prevent the demoralizing effects of aid and help may be secured by avoiding gratuitous distribution of food, money, or clothing," adding that in cases of sickness or abject poverty an exception may be made. She always sought the permanent relief of Ireland. She firmly be-

lieved in the chaste sentiment of Disraeli,—
 "The palace is not safe when the cottage is unhappy, and no home can be happy where the presence of woman is not felt."

AIDING TURKISH REFUGEES IN WAR TIME.

The far-reaching humanitarianism of the Baroness found a field for its fullest expression in time of war. The ghastly atrocities committed by the Russians against the Turkish refugees, in the Russo-Turkish War of 1877, powerfully appealed to her great heart. At her own generous suggestion the Turkish Compassionate Fund was founded, administered, and in large measure sustained. She wrote and published a chivalric letter of exquisite pathos. It fired the heart of England. Enormous quantities of clothing and hospital stores were contributed. Large sums of money came in. Mr. William Ashmead Bartlett, who, four years later, became the husband of the Baroness, sailed from England in the yacht *Constance*, which was laden to the gunwales with provisions and medical stores. In the distribution of this vast quantity of goods he brought into service his admirable administrative ability. The abject misery of the refugees, the systematic manner of distribution, the incidents connected with the relief actually brought about, the perils encountered, and the final honors, form a fascinating chapter in the history of modern philanthropy. These superb labors were fittingly recognized by the Sultan in conferring both upon the Baroness and Mr. Burdett-Coutts the Order of Mejdidiyeh.

MULTIFORM CHARITIES AND "CAUSES."

The consecrated wealth of this peerless giver builds orphanages, hospitals, asylums; it gives lifeboats to the English Society, sustains the lifesaving service at St. Malo, on the coast of France; it supports the home for fallen women at Shepherd's Bush; it erects fountains in Victoria Market, Columbia Market, in Manchester and Edinburgh; it publishes and distributes pamphlets on peace and humanity; it scatters thousands of copies of an edition of *L'Ouvrier Francais* (the *British Workman* in French), of which the Society of Friends in France said: "If that publication could be furnished throughout France regularly it would be a real boon to the country."

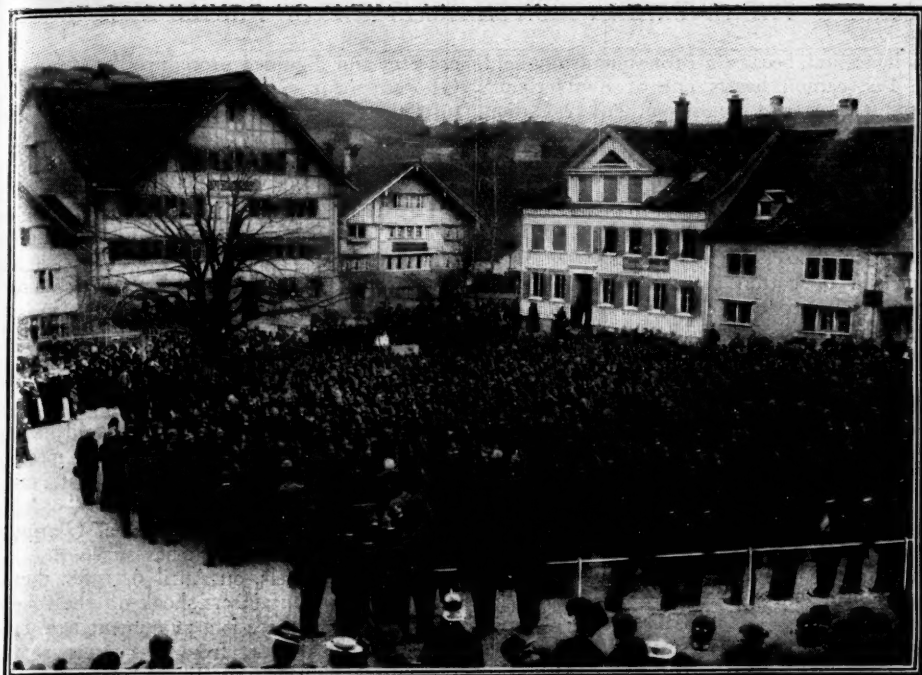
This many-sided humanitarian raised her voice against the cruel way in which the transatlantic cattle trade was carried on and

pleaded for a more merciful method of treating cattle en route from Edinburgh to London, quaintly suggesting that "the mental and bodily sufferings of the animals before they were slaughtered affected the quality of the meat."

A LIFE THAT EMBODIED NATIONAL ASPIRATIONS.

Lady Burdett-Coutts felt the throb of the life of her time; she kept in close touch with the pulse of national sentiment. There was no great movement of her day, either political, patriotic, or civic, which she did not feel, and in a measure promote. Her acquaintance with great statesmen, generals, explorers was more than friendly; it was intensely national. It was not her high social position alone that gave her such a hold upon the people of England for seven decades, but her vital sympathy with every great and good movement for the betterment of mankind. The four apostles to Africa,—Dr. Moffat, Dr. Livingstone, Mr. Stanley, and General Gordon,—elicited her co-operation. When Gordon was shut up in Khartoum and no effort was made to rescue him, she joined a few friends in securing an English merchant to undertake in disguise the perilous journey to the far-off city, with a parcel of letters and English papers, the last words the great General received from the home land. He carried with him to the last a small letter-case given him by her ladyship.

With mental and spiritual faculties undimmed, this imperial humanist passed away on the thirtieth of December, 1906, in the grace and serenity of her ninety-third year. It is one of the noblest encomiums upon her notable history, as a princely giver, that she had few corrections to make regarding the objects or methods of her beneficence. What marvelous insight! What breadth of charity! What tenderness of compassion! What variety in gratuity! Index the charities of the opening years of the twentieth century; find them antedated in the catalogue of the gifts of the Baroness, in the middle of the nineteenth. An inheritor, not a coiner, of wealth, she has given to the world an example of how to distribute, in one's lifetime, the millions of a former generation. As her wealth passed on into its normal and splendid proportions, she kept up a corresponding ratio in her beneficent offerings. Her sapient humanity broadened with the years, and became more and more widely felt in two continents.



THE "OPEN-AIR PARLIAMENT" IN APPENZELL, SWITZERLAND.
(Taking the oath to vote "in the interest of the land and to the avoidance of evil.")

THE "OPEN-AIR PARLIAMENTS" OF SWITZERLAND.

BY W. G. FITZ-GERALD.

IN many ways Switzerland is the ideal state.

The inhabitants pay very little taxes,—unlike their oppressed brethren on the other side of the Alps. They have no navy to maintain; and although every adult is by training and inclination a soldier, as in military Germany, there is no civilized state whose outlook politically is more peaceful.

The nation is made up of 22 commonwealths, or cantons; and, as with our own States, each has its own civil and criminal laws, together with its own local government and system of voting. Several of the cantons have clung tenaciously to the customs of their forefathers; and one of the most curious and interesting of these is the Landsgemeinde, or "open-air parliament," which dates back to the remote Middle Ages without a break.

It is the more strange that Switzerland has not changed, because she is overrun summer and winter with foreign tourists, who

bring enormous sums of money into the prosperous little republic. Thus, last season, in spite of the severe restrictions against fast motoring, at least \$20,000,000 was paid over to hotel and pension keepers, besides another \$7,500,000 to railroad and steamboat companies and proprietors of road vehicles.

Yet the moment Switzerland's foreign millions have turned their backs and gone home, the peasants return to the ways of their fathers; and the famous Alpine guides go back to the sheep-tending and wood-carving, that occupied their ancestors for generations.

As to the "open-air parliaments," one canton,—that of Appenzell,—has two such law-making bodies, because of the religious split which led to the war of 1597, and divided this little state into two parts. Thus, Inner Rhoden, with little Appenzell as its capital, remained true to the Roman Catholic Church, while Ausser Rhoden, with Trogen

as its capital, became a Protestant stronghold.

The canton boasts one of Switzerland's largest lakes, and almost southern vegetation, rich pastures, lofty snow mountains, and great industrial prosperity. A rough, hardy, and pious folk these Appenzellers, knowing little of the outer world beyond their cattle-breeding and cheese-making. Almost every house in Ausser Rhoden has its own loom for silk or cotton manufacture, and these homemade products often exhibit extraordinary taste and skill, and have been greatly admired by the most eminent connoisseurs in the various international expositions.

Appenzell itself is only a big village of ancient wooden houses; and above towers the snow-clad Sentsis, of 8000 feet, whose rocky summit commands a superb panorama of Lake Constance, with Swabia and Bavaria, as well as the Tyrolese Mountains, the Grisons, and the Alps of Glarus and Berne. Both parliaments meet at Trogen and Appenzell on the last Sunday in April of each succeeding year.

No more interesting sight could be imagined than the scene in the quaint old market square opposite the ancient Rathaus. First of all his faithful followers wait upon the President, with other members of the government, and escort them from the Rathaus to the platform on the big square which has been erected the previous day.

In front of this the thousands of burghers stand bareheaded in the sunlight as the venerable President opens the parliament with a prayer and a modest speech. The men assembled before him take an oath to vote according to conscience, "for the good of the land and the avoidance of all evil."

Next a list of candidates for the cantonal government is handed up to the platform, and the members of the new body are elected simply by a show of hands. The old President reads out each name and the question of "Aye?" is put to the people, much as Moses himself must have done in ancient Biblical days.

Up go the hands of those who are in favor of the candidate. Then "Nay" is called, and hands go up also. Of course, the majority decides. And in this simple way is this law-abiding and prosperous community ruled. Then follow various discussions about roads, laws, and new regulations,—all of which matters have been freely discussed in the little local journals for weeks before the parliament met.

The foreign onlooker is amazed at the

peaceful and dignified procedure throughout. Of excitement or unseemly fighting or insults there is absolutely none. Every phase of the work in hand is conducted with quiet self-possession that many a magnificent senate might envy.

The Glarner Landsgemeinde meets annually on the first Sunday in May. Canton Glarus, too, has had its religious wars, when family rose against family. But in this district the two religions did not separate as in other places, the one going one way and the other another, like Abraham and Lot. Rather did each man remain on the land of his fathers. But it was agreed by contract in 1623 that each denomination should have a separate government; the Protestants meeting at Schwanden and the Catholics at Näfels. And one week later a common "open-air parliament" was to be held at Glarus. And this is the one which has survived.

It was at Näfels, on April 9, 1388, that these proud mountaineers shook off the yoke of Austria, and there is a monument here to which pilgrims resort from every corner of the canton on the first Thursday in April. Perhaps in no town in the world do Protestants and Catholics get on so well together as in little Glarus. Above it towers the precipitous Vorder-Glarisch, and still above its brownish precipices tower the eternal snows of the Hausstock.

There is but one church, belonging to both Protestant and Catholic parishes, and services are held for both every Sunday morning, one after the other. At 10 o'clock on the morning of the first Sunday in May a detachment of smart infantry and a brass band accompany the President and the members of his government from the Town Hall to the quaint old mediæval square by the school-house.

Here the President, chief justice, and two secretaries, take their places on the platform which the villagers have erected in the centre of a hugh circle marked by tiers of benches. The background of quaint old houses, towering precipices, and beyond, the snowy ramps of the Alps, is magnificently picturesque.

On the front benches the members of the cantonal government are seated, and the rest are occupied by male citizens of the tiny state.

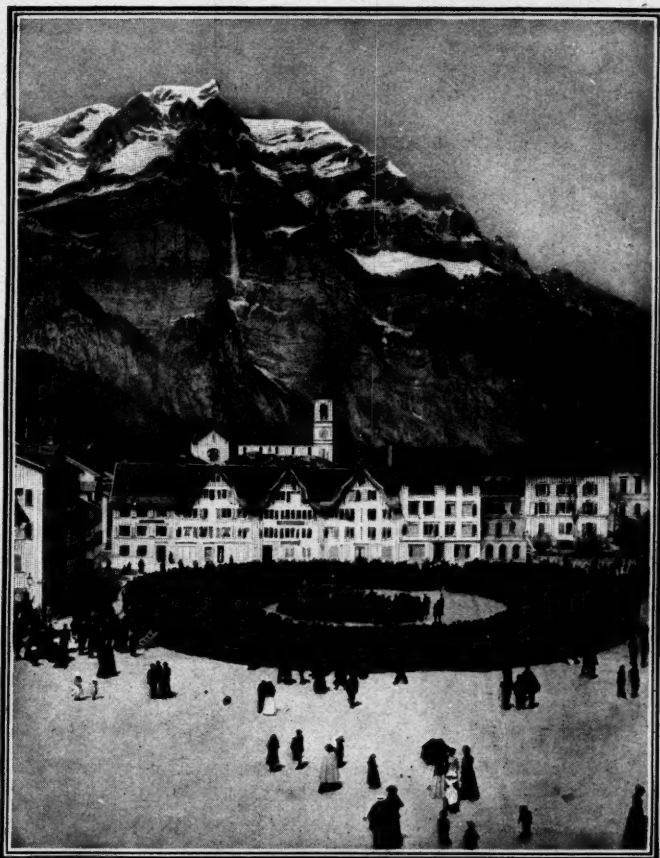
The proceedings here are noticeably wider in tone than in the other Swiss cantons which keep up the "open-air parliaments." In his opening speech the President refers to the political events of the past year,—not only

in Canton Glarus, but also all over the republic, and in the rest of the world besides. Strange as it may seem, this grave old peasant's address is a model of dignity, breadth of view, and grasp of the reality of things.

He is listened to with grave reverence, and at the close of his speech the oath to vote "for the benefit of the country and the avoidance of evil" is taken by the assembled burghers with uplifted arms and three fingers pointing to the sky. Next follow the elections of state officers, and after that due measures and laws are discussed. They may have reference to roads (the Alpine roads are famous the world over), or to markets, sanitary measures, schools, police, and so on.

Citizen after citizen rises from his place; and although he may have difficulty in signing his own name, yet he has a grave and serious tongue, and puts an argument with force and cogency. Many a foreign onlooker has been amazed at the brevity and wit of these speakers, who are in some cases entirely illiterate or very poorly educated; factory hands, it may be, farmers, or small tradespeople. And yet these frequently throw the doctors and lawyers into the shade as orators in these open-air Alpine parliaments. Anything like graft or bribery is utterly unknown; notoriously the sturdy independent spirit of the Swiss peasant would make any attempt at undue influence something more than unprofitable.

The only disadvantage the system has is that all the world may see how a man votes. As to what kind of measures are brought forward at these unique parliaments, let us consider the last in Canton Glarus. The meas-



THE PARLIAMENT OF GLARUS MEETING IN THE SQUARE WITH A MOUNTAIN BACKGROUND.

ures may not seem to us of epoch-making importance, but they affect very seriously the comfort and well-being of this pastoral people. A workingmen's club sent deputies who proposed to raise the price of salt to 4 cents a kilo; the extra profits to be used for the founding of an insurance fund for workingmen against sickness and old age.

Then an Alpine guide representing a hunting society rose up and suggested that certain districts be preserved henceforward and no shooting of chamois or other game to be allowed for a certain number of years. Fishermen's clubs wanted all fishing in the Linth, from the Lake of Walen to the Bridge at Mollis, forbidden absolutely. Another proposal was to abolish the obligatory insurance of cattle.

Taxes and rates were fixed by the parliament, also the cantonal expenditure on public

works, such as the building and maintenance of roads and the correction of river beds torn by winter torrents from the mountains. Also the erection of new schoolhouses. All new measures must be first read and discussed three times by the government before they are proposed to the parliament sitting in solemn open-air conclave.

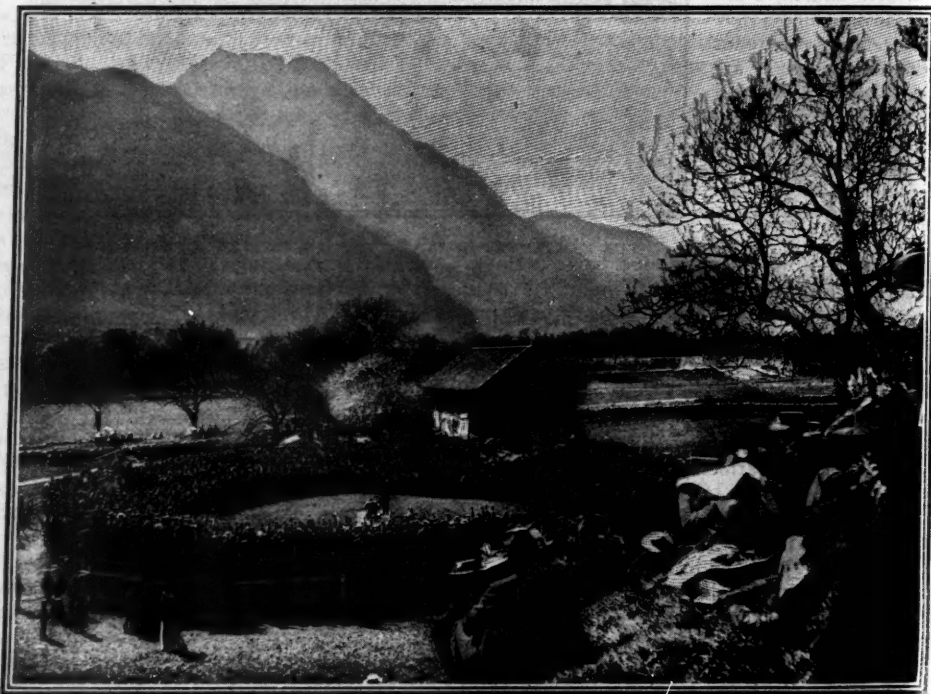
Usually it is a question of "Aye" or "Nay." Sometimes, however, a paragraph of a new bill, or even the entire measure, will be openly discussed before the parliament, and either accepted or rejected. If in course of time a measure is not found to answer it can be abolished by the next parliament.

At Altdorf and Sarnen the "open-air parliaments" of Uri and Unterwalden meet, also in the lovely month of May. The congress of Altdorf meets in a field close to the village; for the capital of Canton Uri is so tiny a place that it does not possess a square large enough conveniently to hold its male population. But little Altdorf is a lovely village, buried in gardens and pastures and surrounded by lofty snows. This is William

Tell's own place, and a bronze statue of the famous archer, with his boy by his side, stands in the mediæval platz, near the tower of the thirteenth-century church.

Just above the Capuchin Monastery the visitor will see the Bannwald, or sacred grove, which will never know a woodman's axe, since it protects the little village from falling rocks,—as Schiller's classic play will tell you. Here we see the same quaint scene of a big circle of citizens making their own laws in the open air, as their ancestors have done for a thousand years.

The parliament at Sarnen, the capital of Canton Unterwalden, consists of 3000 voters, almost all of them Catholics. As a general rule the proceedings are absolutely peaceful and votes of confidence are passed in both President and government officers. These, when they have done their work and faithfully served their little mountain community, drop back into their pastoral pursuits once more and on parliament day will rally loyally to the support of the new chief of state, whoever he may be.



THE CANTONAL CONGRESS AT ALTDORF, THE PLACE MADE FAMOUS BY WILLIAM TELL.

ITALIAN COTTON-GROWERS IN ARKANSAS.

BY ALFRED HOLT STONE.

FOR years it has been the mental habit of the American people to associate cotton production with the idea of negro labor as its sole dependence. This is true to such an extent that most people are under the impression that practically the entire American cotton crop is the product of negro toil. As a matter of fact, more than half is raised by the white man. The inability of the negro, thus far, to hold his own in competition with the Northern white man has been demonstrated so often, and in so many ways, that it is no longer a debatable question. The fault is divided between the labor union, Northern economic race prejudice, and negro inefficiency,—in what proportions I shall not attempt to say. As a cotton-grower, however, his supremacy remains unquestioned in the popular mind. In investigating this popular fallacy some 13 years ago I reached the conclusion that, although the native Southern white man had always, even during the slavery régime, produced a much larger proportion of the cotton crop than was commonly believed, it was not he who was destined seriously to threaten the negro's hold on this branch of industry. I believed then, as I believe now, that it is through immigration that the South is to realize the ultimate development of her almost untouched resources. I believe that it is merely a question of time when the story of the West is to find its counterpart in the Southern States. The action may be artificially retarded or accelerated, according to the sentiment of the native white man in different parts of the South; but it can no more be prevented than can the final working out of any other economic law.

It is now more than a quarter of a century since Frederick Douglass risked his reputation as a prophet on a prediction based upon the economic dependence of the South upon the negro. In an address on the "Kansas Exodus" he declared that:

Only a few years of non-tillage would be needed to give the sunny and fruitful South to the bats and owls of a desolate wilderness. From this condition, shocking for a Southern man to contemplate, it is now seen that nothing less powerful than the naked iron arm of the negro can save her. For him as a Southern laborer there is no competitor or substitute. The

thought of filling his place by any other variety of the human family will be found delusive and utterly impracticable. Neither Chinaman, German, Norwegian, nor Swede can drive him from the sugar and cotton-fields of Louisiana and Mississippi. They would certainly perish in the black bottoms of those States if they could be induced, which they cannot, to try the experiment. Hence it is seen that the dependence of the planters, land-owners, and old master-class of the South upon the negro is nearly complete and perfect. He stands to-day the admitted author of whatever prosperity, beauty, and civilization are now possessed by the South, and the admitted arbiter of her destiny.

THE ITALIAN AS THE NEGRO'S COMPETITOR.

It is rather singular that in his enumeration of races incapable of competing with the negro Frederick Douglass should have overlooked the Italian, though his words are wholly without foundation as to those he mentioned. It is very largely the Italian who has deprived the negro of so many occupations in Northern cities, and it is the hardy, thrifty, tireless peasant of the same race who is to-day, in the sugar and cotton fields of Louisiana, Arkansas, and Mississippi, furnishing proof that Douglass was a better orator than prophet. With his exultant words in mind, it is interesting to turn to the dull and prosaic pages of an Industrial Commission report of a later day, and read there the matter-of-fact statement that "the Italians of Mississippi and Louisiana are rapidly dislodging the negroes from the sugar-cane plantations." The five parishes of Louisiana which in 1899, the year previous to the last census, had more than 20,000 acres each in cane were St. Mary, Lafourche, Assumption, Terrebonne, and St. James. This group contained 54 per cent. of the total cane area of the State. In 1890 these parishes contained 960 Italians, and in 1900, 5007. During the same 10-year period the percentage of negroes decreased.

THE COLONY AT SUNNYSIDE.

But it is the Italian cotton-grower to whom I wish to call attention here, and to what is probably the most important colony of these people now in the Southern States. This is the Sunnyside colony, in Chicot County, Ark., on the Mississippi River, nearly opposite Greenville, Miss., and be-

tween Memphis and Vicksburg. The chief claim of this colony to importance, in any consideration of American Italians, lies in the fact that among them all it has been the most widely advertised as a failure, while in truth it is outranked by few, if any, as a success. I have been familiar with its history since its foundation, and when I began the preparation of a paper on the negro's economic future it was to Sunnyside that I at once turned, as to an object lesson illustrative of the possibilities of white competition with the negro in the latter's ancient and strongest field.

This colony had its inception in a plan of the late Austin Corbin, of New York, to sell to Italians a large body of cotton land in Arkansas. This tract comprises several thousand acres, and represents the consolidation of several plantations. Mr. Corbin's experiment as a non-resident Southern cotton-planter was not a success, but by the expenditure of large sums of money he developed a highly improved piece of property. He failed with the free negro, and turned to the convict, under an arrangement with the Arkansas penitentiary. He finally hit on the scheme of selling the land to Italians, it being commonly understood at the time that Prince Ruspoli, of Rome, was interested in the venture. Mr. Corbin has been bitterly denounced, often by men, Italians and others, who knew nothing of the facts, for attempting to impose on the ignorance of these peasants, in the matter of the price charged for the land. The figure was high at the time, it is true, but the terms were liberal, and Mr. Corbin knew that the land would yield to its new tenant-owners a far larger revenue than any similar investment they could make at home. As an experiment on this line the effort was a failure, but the fault did not wholly lie with Mr. Corbin. Converted, as it has been, into a colony of tenant-farmers, there has been no more signal success in the Southern cotton-belt.

I was acquainted with the ups and downs of the original colony, and had read many accounts of its failure. Time and again I had seen it referred to as proof conclusive, the ultimate demonstration, of the utter inability of the white foreigner to compete with the negro as a cotton-grower. But I was not prepared for an experience which befell me while on my way to Baltimore in December, 1905, to read before the American Economic Association the paper based to some extent on the outcome of the Corbin ex-

periment. We were some hours out of Atlanta, going through the red fields of north Georgia. Some one in the smoking compartment remarked, as he glanced through the window at a particularly forlorn-looking village, squatting in the midst of a field of "bumble-bee" cotton, that Georgia and the South would never be what they should be until they introduced foreign and Northern farmers to properly develop the agricultural resources of the country. The remark was like a spark in a magazine, and before I realized it I was listening to another "absolutely authentic and first-hand account of the miserable failure of just such an effort." It was Sunnyside again. It was a mean thing to do, but I waited until the somber picture of my Italian colony was completed, and the audience thoroughly satisfied that it was hopeless to think of trying to make cotton-growers out of "Dago organ-grinders and fruit-peddlers." Then I sent for my bag and produced the figures which I had prepared for the American Economic Association, some of which are given here. The innocent author of the trouble looked his gratitude, the New York gentleman expressed his thanks for being set right, and the subject was dropped.

"FARMERS" UNSKILLED AT FARMING.

It is an old and a true adage that one cannot make a silk purse of a sow's ear. It is equally as true that not even a man of Austin Corbin's capacity could convert a heterogeneous collection of butchers, bakers, tailors, shoemakers, etc., fresh from Italy, into a colony of satisfied and efficient Arkansas cotton-growers. Yet this is just what was originally attempted at Sunnyside. It is no purpose of this article to locate the responsibility, but from personal observation I can say that these so-called "Italian farmers" represented as variegated an assortment of occupations and trades as one could find in any single collection of individuals. And here was the real foundation of the trouble.

I have seen these "farmers" leave the field and go to the office and besiege the bookkeeper for permission to make him a pair of shoes. Tailors among them were equally as importunate. On one occasion I noticed one of them wheeling a very peculiar looking barrow along the road. On examination it proved to be a dismantled cotton-planter of the latest and most expensive type. It had been turned over to him to use in planting his crop, and he had at once converted it into a vehicle with which he was more familiar.

The terms under which land was sold to these people provided that they were to be given employment at daily wages, in so far as possible, and that half the money thus earned was to be paid them in cash, and half to be applied to the debts incident to their transportation. I happened to be present one pay-day, and witnessed an incident which of itself stamped the word failure on the enterprise: A group of Italians who had been engaged in "day work" came to the office and demanded all cash for their week's earnings. It was in vain that the interpreter pointed to the clause in their contracts, printed in duplicate in Italian and English, which provided for only half cash, and reminded them that time and again they had accepted payment according to its terms. Their leader was a great, broad-shouldered, blue-eyed, and fair-haired giant. He would listen to neither reason nor argument, and finally, with gestures which all present understood, in a burst of rage, he threatened to "burn every building on Sunnyside" if their demands were not complied with. One or two of the plantation managers were present, and they offered to dispose of the matter at once, if only given permission. But the office management took counsel with officials higher up, with the result that full payment was made, and discipline and order hopelessly impaired.

Space forbids an enumeration of all the troubles which beset the situation. But the management could not be charged with failure to provide for the general welfare of the community. Several miles of railroad were constructed, connecting the various parts of the property. A school was built and Catholic sisters engaged to teach the children of the colony. A church was provided and a priest employed to look after its spiritual needs. On Sundays a "church train" was run, to convey worshipers to and from their devotions, and during the week a "school train," morning and afternoon, gathered and redistributed the children who attended school. There was sickness, it is true, during the process of acclimatization, and before the newcomers learned to properly take care of themselves. But there were also Italians in nearby towns who told the colonists that they were being defrauded and imposed upon, and these whisperings did their part in breeding discontent. After Mr. Corbin's death a policy of drift was pursued. The shoemaker and the tailor and the tinker removed to places which furnished a better field for their activities than a cotton planta-

tion. Some of the colonists returned to Italy. Some went off to nearby plantations, in Arkansas and Mississippi, and became tenants and purchasers of land, upon which have grown up other groups of peasant farmers. Some went to another part of Arkansas, and founded the flourishing colony of Tontitown, of which the Italian Ambassador has written glowingly in certain Italian magazines. Some remained. The ranks thus thinned were filled by negroes, and thus was developed an opportunity for making the fairest test with which I am acquainted of the relative merits and efficiency of the negro and Italian as growers of the staple which contributes most to the maintenance of our favorable balance of trade.

A FAIR TEST OF THE TWO RACES.

It was in 1898 that the Corbin estate entered into a business agreement with Messrs. O. B. Crittenden & Co., cotton factors, of Greenville, Miss., under which that firm assumed entire charge of the property. For the first time since Austin Corbin's original purchase the business of planting cotton on Sunnyside was in the hands of practical cotton-planters, rather than under the control of very excellent civil engineers from New England and the North. When Crittenden & Co. took charge there were 38 Italian squads on the place, with 200 working hands, cultivating 1200 acres of cotton. There were 203 negro squads, with 600 working hands, cultivating 2600 acres of cotton. At the end of 1905, after eight years, the cotton acreage had increased to 3900 acres. Of this we find 900 acres cultivated by 38 negro squads, with 175 working hands, while 107 Italian squads, with 500 working hands, cultivated 3000 acres. The change in the relative numbers of the two races has been accomplished through entirely normal processes, and therein lies the real secret of the success of the new colony upon the identical ground which was the scene of the failure of the old. The average plantation negro in this section of the South is constantly shifting his base. The paramount difficulty is that of securing reliable tenants. The Italians who were on Sunnyside in 1898 did so well under the new régime that they not only remained themselves, but of their own volition sent to Italy for their families and friends. When a negro moved out an Italian moved in. The new management knew nothing about Italians. They knew the general history of the "Sunnyside Italian failure," which certainly

was not calculated to prejudice them in favor of the foreigner. But they were practical business men, and in looking at the work and results of two classes of labor could easily "tell a hawk from a handsaw." It is interesting to glance at some of these results.

COMPARISON OF PRODUCTIVE POWERS.

The figures for the first year were not obtainable when I made my investigation, and the year 1905 had not then closed. Hence the period covered was for six years, 1899 to 1904, inclusive. During these years the Italians made an annual average of 2584 pounds of lint cotton per working hand, and the negroes an average of 1174 pounds. The average lint production per acre was for the Italians 403 pounds, and 233 pounds for the negro. The average cash product value (cotton and seed) was \$277.36 per hand for the Italians, and \$128.47 for the negro. These values per acre were for the Italians \$44.77; for the negro, \$26.36. The Italian produced 1410 pounds more lint per hand than the negro, equal to 120.1 per cent., while he raised 170 pounds, or 72.9 per cent., more lint per acre. This represents a difference in money value, including cotton-seed, of \$148.89 per hand, or 115.8 per cent., in favor of the Italian, and of \$18.41, or 69.8 per cent., in value per acre. The Italian cultivated 6.2 acres per working hand, and the negro 5.1 acres.

COMPARATIVE RECORDS AS TO THRIFT AND PROSPERITY.

The matter of efficiency as between the European and the negro is no longer a debatable question among those familiar with the two classes of labor. The true and far deeper significance attaches to the uses to which the two put their respective earnings. Stated briefly, from the exhibit before us, the Italian saved and the negro did not. Of the 110 Italian squads who began crops in 1905, 44 were new arrivals. Yet of the total number, 65 squads, or 59 per cent., made no accounts for supplies during the year. This means that practically all those who made crops on the place in 1904 brought themselves to a state of independence for 1905. In 1905, 61 negro families began crops on the property, of whom but two, or 3.2 per cent., were independent. We may understand this better when we know that to the 66 Italian squads who made crops in 1904 there was paid in cash balances above all accounts the sum of \$38,764.58, an average

of \$587.35 per squad. In 1904 there were 110 negro squads on the place, and of these, two drew balances amounting to \$480.50, while more than \$6,000.00 had to be carried over for the others, or charged off to profit and loss. The net result of these operations may be illustrated in another way: At the end of 1905 there were 107 Italian squads, and of these 104 owned 123 head of work stock, and other live stock in addition, to the total value of \$23,400. Only three squads out of the total number owned no stock. At the close of 1905 there were 38 negro squads still on the property, and of these 21 owned stock to the value of \$3360, while 17 had nothing at all. Expressed in percentages, only 2.8 per cent. of the Italians failed to share the community prosperity, while among the negroes 44.7 per cent. found themselves in this condition.

CULTIVATION OF WASTE CORNERS.

There are many queer illustrations of the traits which lie behind the showing made by these transplanted children of sunny Italy. Some years ago, under the old régime, I was making a trip over the property, on the plantation train, with the resident general manager. We saw an Italian some distance ahead of us wildly signaling for us to stop. In an excited tone, and in broken but clearly intelligible English, he told the manager that he wanted the trains discontinued until he had gathered his crop. It was then only August, and he had not even begun to pick. It was out of the question to comply with his demand, but he soon made us appreciate the ground of his complaint. With infinite pains, and evidently at the cost of much careful work with his hands, he had planted and cultivated cotton between the projecting ends of the cross-ties, right up to the rails. This cotton was now tall enough to be swept by the cars in passing, and he wanted an end put to the nuisance which promised to damage his crop. It was explained that the railroad right-of-way was not his. He replied that he had been told that his land extended to the track, and he had simply planted accordingly. For my part I thought he should have been reimbursed. Such an example should not have gone without its reward. They planted on Sunnyside the banks of streams which had never before known the touch of a plow. They plant ditch banks and fence rows with equal care, and cultivate every square foot of soil on which they are paying rent.

They were often the butt of ridicule by both white and black at first. I recall one who went to his daily work with an umbrella attached to the handles of his plow. He was jeered by every negro who saw the novel spectacle, and it was freely predicted that he would soon "play out." He is there yet, and some months ago he informed me, with all the pride of successful achievement, that he "could buy out every 'negar' in Chicot County." But the day has long since passed when their methods of farming or living excite unfavorable comment. The few figures given here are a guaranty of that fact. They live well, for the most part. A friend of mine, who has but recently introduced them, told me that he did not expect to live long enough to become accustomed to ordering Italian wine from New Orleans for tenants on his plantation. They all have wine, but drink it in moderation. They all have gardens, and in them raise enough to furnish their tables in season, and also largely to carry them through the winter. They seem to be able to cure almost anything they grow. I have eaten meals in their houses in January, and been astonished at the variety of vegetables set before me.

It is not within the scope of this sketch to attempt a discussion of even the local effect of the Italian on the negro. Some negroes, I know, have been spurred to greater effort by the example set by the stranger. One of these, a gray-haired veteran of many a hard-plowed field, talked over the matter with me somewhat on this wise:

I 'lowed to Marthy, when I heered dem Dagoes had done bought de jinin' tract, dat I was gwine ter show de white folks dat here was one nigger what wouldn't lay down in front er no man livin', when it come to makin' cotton. En I done it, too, plumb till pickin' time. It blowed me, too, sho's you bawn; blowed me mightily. But jis ez I thought I had um bested, what you reckon happened? I'z a natchel-bawn cotton-picker, mysef, and so is Marthy, and right dar is whar I 'lowed I had um. But 'tother night when me an-de ole 'oman 'uz drivin' back fum church, long erbout 12 o'clock, en er full moon, what you reckon I seen, boss?

I assured him of my utter inability to even guess at the possibilities presented by such a situation. He dropped his voice almost to a whisper as he continued:

Fo' Gawd in Heaven, dat Dago en his wife en fo' chillun wuz pickin' cotton by de moonlight. I do 'no' how it looks to you, but I calls dat er underhanded trick mysef.

PROTECTING THE FARMER AGAINST FRAUD.

BY JOHN PHILLIPS STREET.

THE establishment in Connecticut in 1875 of the first American agricultural experiment station was the beginning of a new era in the history of agriculture in this country. The good example of Connecticut was followed by other States, the station in North Carolina being established in 1877, the New York (Cornell) station in 1879, and the New Jersey station in 1880. Under the Hatch bill, passed by the federal Congress in 1887, similar experiment stations were established in every State of the Union in connection with the land-grant colleges acting under the act of 1862. Certain of the States in which experiment stations had been already established continued to maintain the older institutions, Alabama, Connecticut, New Jersey, and New York each having two, and Louisiana three, so that at the present time there are 56 of these institutions scattered throughout the country, besides government

stations in Alaska, Hawaii, and Porto Rico.

One of the impelling purposes leading to the establishment of these stations was the constantly increasing use of commercial fertilizers by the American farmer. The necessity for testing their effectiveness in actual field practice, and the importance of educating the farmer as to their rational use and of protecting him against fraudulent mixtures and exorbitant charges, made a thorough inspection of the fertilizers offered for sale a paramount duty of the experiment stations in their early days. Nor has this duty lessened as the years have passed; for while the activities of the stations have progressed along broader and more scientific lines, the necessity for protecting the farmer in the purchase of his farm supplies has never been lost sight of.

The fertilizer industry in America is scarcely more than 50 years old, yet in that

time it has reached colossal proportions; so that the annual expenditure for fertilizers exceeds \$50,000,000. At first the commercial fertilizers were brought into strong competition with the manures of the farm, and excessive, and even fraudulent, claims were made for them. It was for the experiment stations to point out that a fertilizer was valuable chiefly for the available nitrogen, phosphoric acid, and potash which it contained. Whether these were secured by the mixing of raw materials into a commercial fertilizer or through the natural processes of animal digestion, it was the amount of these fertilizing elements,—elements which repeated experiments had shown were essential for plant growth,—that determined the fertilizer's value. The use of commercial fertilizers being a new venture for the farmer, the multiplicity of brands, their frequently misleading names, and the tendency to utilize any sort of waste product, regardless of its fertilizing value, in the manufacture of fertilizers, soon made it apparent that a systematic inspection and control of these materials were necessary for the farmer's protection.

Accordingly, laws regulating the sale of fertilizers were passed successively in every State east of the Mississippi, and in Arkansas, Louisiana, Missouri, California, and Texas. While no two State laws are exactly alike, they agree in general in requiring that to each package of fertilizer shall be attached a statement as to its guaranteed composition, the name and address of the manufacturer, and the net weight of the package. The inspection official is authorized to issue licenses or certificates allowing the sale of the fertilizer, to collect samples, make analyses of the same, publish the results, with such comments as he may deem necessary, and prosecute violators of the law. The laws differ in the amount and manner of levying the tax, the method of stating the guaranty, the materials exempt from inspection, and the penalty for violation. While the inspection is committed to different officials in the various States,—commissioners of agriculture, State chemists, directors of experiment stations,—the great bulk of the actual analytical work is performed in the laboratories of the experiment stations. Certain materials like lime, land plaster, wood ashes, cottonseed meal, agricultural salt, barnyard manure, marl, castor pomace, tobacco stems, and unmixed fertilizing materials are exempt from the provisions of the law in many of the States, while in New Jersey imported guanos

are also exempted. In North Carolina the law protects brand names or trademarks, and in nearly all the States any fertilizer selling for \$10 or less per ton does not come within the law. In certain States, as Massachusetts, Mississippi, New York, North Carolina, and Rhode Island, when leather, hair, wool waste, or other inert products are used in manufacturing a fertilizer the fact must be clearly stated in a printed certificate, or their sale is interdicted.

The variability of the State laws has occasioned much criticism on the part of certain of the larger manufacturers, and not unjustly, for the expense of printing different statements on the bag for different States where thousands of tons are sold is heavy, and confusion and uncertainty are almost sure to result. To meet this objection a standard law has been proposed by a joint committee of the Association of American Agricultural Colleges and Experiment Stations and the Association of Official Agricultural Chemists, after conference with the manufacturers. The purpose of this law is to encourage uniformity, simplicity, and definiteness of statement, so that States contemplating new laws or amending existing laws may use it as a guide.

The important point, however, is not so much the nature of the laws and their provisions as what has been their effect. Unquestionably they have been of the greatest benefit to the American farmer and the honest fertilizer manufacturer. In the first place, the published analyses show exactly how much nitrogen, phosphoric acid, or potash the fertilizers contain, and whether the amounts supplied agree with those promised by the manufacturers. In the early days of fertilizer inspection wide variations from the guaranties were common, arising either from carelessness or ignorance on the part of the manufacturer, or from a deliberate intention to deceive the intending purchaser. It must be admitted that even at the present time these variations have not ceased to exist, nor is it probable that they ever will; but deliberate fraud is the exception, not the rule. The publication of the results of the inspections permits the farmer not only to verify the guaranty given with the goods which he purchased, but also to compare its analysis with that of other brands, thereby affording him the opportunity of making a wise choice in his future purchases. A good analysis is one of the best of advertisements for the manufacturer, while a poor showing is correspond-

ingly injurious. The manufacturers soon learned that errors on their part in the compounding of their brands, whether intentional or due to carelessness, would be exposed by the inspection officials in all impartiality, not only to their consumers, but to their competitors as well, and to them it became simply a business proposition to exercise the utmost care in the manufacture and sale of their fertilizers. All this has been of the greatest benefit to the farmer as well as to the reputable manufacturer. The comments usually accompanying the published analyses have had an important educational influence on the farmer. They have taught him what to value in a fertilizer, what fertilizers to use for his various crops, how important it is that the fertilizing elements shall be in such a form as to be available to the needs of the plants, and they have pointed out the value or valuelessness of new fertilizing materials as they have appeared on the market. The American farmer no longer follows the old dictum that a fertilizer must smell bad to be efficacious, for he now knows that, no matter whether a fertilizer be odorless or odorless, unless it contains nitrogen, phosphoric acid, or potash it cannot benefit his crops, and he will have none of it.

STANDARDS OF PURITY IN CATTLE-FEEDING.

The question of pure cattle-feeds is also of vital importance to the farmer. The systematic examination and inspection of cattle-feeds is of comparatively recent practice. In 1897 Massachusetts passed a law requiring such an inspection, and at the present time most of the New England and Middle States have similar laws. These laws were occasioned chiefly by the frequent appearance of undecorticated cottonseed meal (meal containing a large proportion of hulls), the great variability in composition of the different gluten meals and feeds, and because of the constantly increasing number of mixed feeds prepared by oatmeal and other manufactories, consisting very largely of their offal and waste products.

The three ingredients of a cattle-feed which give it its value are the protein, the fat, and the carbohydrates. The protein is the flesh-forming material, while the fat and the carbohydrates are chiefly useful in supplying fat and heat to the animal. The State laws require a guaranty only of the amount of protein and fat contained in the feed, and the reason for this is twofold: First, because these are the most important and most valuable elements of the feed, and, secondly, be-

cause the average farmer already possesses sufficient carbohydrates in the roughage of the farm, and the chief object of his purchase of concentrated feeds is only to secure sufficient protein and fat to add to this roughage to obtain a well-balanced ration for his stock.

The inspection of cattle-feeds, therefore, in the first place requires a chemical analysis to determine whether or not the guaranteed composition is reached. A long series of analyses made by investigators in all parts of the country supplies the chemist with certain standards of purity, which he can apply to the materials under examination. The mere fact that a feed reaches its guaranty, however, is not sufficient in all cases, for the average farmer as yet pays little attention to the guaranty, and purchases only by brand name. If a feed fails to come up to the standard set by experience, it then becomes necessary to determine the cause of this inferiority, whether it is due to inferior methods of manufacture or accidental or intentional addition of extraneous matter. Although, as referred to above, before the passage of the inspection laws cottonseed meal was very frequently found adulterated with hulls, at the present time when cottonseed meal, linseed meal, gluten feeds, and other high-class feeding materials fail to reach their guaranty, in the majority of cases the cause can be traced directly to imperfect methods of manufacture.

The troubles of the cattle-feeder, however, do not lie in the purchase of these standard materials, although they are exceedingly variable in composition. His great difficulty lies in the purchase of the mixed products, which under various attractive and tempting trade-names, at an apparently low price, are now so numerous in our markets. It is in the purchase of such feeds that the question of price is an important factor. When corn meal and ground oats are each worth \$29 per ton, it is difficult to understand how a mixture of these grains under the name "corn and oats" can be sold for \$23 per ton. Such a discrepancy in price shows at once that the mixture cannot be strictly what it is represented. To be sure, it may contain corn and oats, but the oats especially will be found to be either light oats or oat hulls, or a mixture of the two. When we remember that good oats contain about 11 per cent. and oat hulls only about 2 per cent. of protein, the extent of the deception is clear. The presence of oat hulls, therefore, is no certain evidence that any other portion of the oat grain is contained in the mixture. The guar-

anty is of much value in feeds of this class. Corn meal on the average contains about 9.5 per cent. of protein, and ground oats about 11 per cent. A mixture of these grains, therefore, which guarantees only 8 per cent. of protein assuredly cannot contain the best portions of these grains. Likewise, an oat feed guaranteeing only 5 or 6 per cent. of protein gives certain evidence that the greater part of this oat "feed" is oat hulls. An important illustration of the value of a guaranty is shown by a class of samples received at the New Jersey experiment station in 1902. Four samples of "rice meal" were received bearing the uniform guaranty of 2.56 per cent. protein and 1.00 per cent. fat. Analysis showed that the samples satisfied their guaranties, yet on their very face they showed that they were not what they claimed to be. Rice meal, which is a valuable carbohydrate feed, contains on the average about 11 per cent. of protein and 9 per cent. of fat, and it is clear, therefore, that any purchaser who buys rice meal guaranteed to contain but 2.56 per cent. of protein, at the same price he would pay for genuine rice meal, has no one to blame but himself, for the guaranty only too plainly tells him the source of this feed,—namely, rice hulls.

The examples above cited show clearly the importance of requiring a guaranty, and what a protection such a guaranty should be to the intelligent purchaser. It is the inspector's duty, moreover, not only to ascertain whether a given feed satisfies its guaranty, but, in mixed feeds particularly, also to determine just what materials the manufacturer has used in compounding his mixtures. Some of these materials may simply be worthless, while others may be positively injurious. The detection of the adulterations practiced and the publication thereof have resulted in almost completely driving the offending feeds out of the markets of those States having feed inspection laws. An adulterated feed in the New England or Middle States is now very exceptional, and if such is found it is usually some new product whose sale quickly diminishes, if it does not entirely cease, after its analysis has once been published. In most of the States the following feeds are exempted from the provisions of the law: Hays, straws, whole seeds or unmixed meals made directly from the entire grains of

wheat, rye, barley, oats, maize, buckwheat, and broom-corn, and wheat, rye, and buckwheat brans and middlings. However, since very gross adulterations of wheat bran, feed, and middlings, with corncobs, broom-corn, and pulverized rock, have been observed in several of the States, these feeds are also gradually being brought within the provisions of the law.

OTHER FORMS OF INSPECTION.

But the farmer is protected not only in his purchase of fertilizers and cattle-feeds. The very common system of paying for milk and cream according to the fat content, as determined by the Babcock test, has led Maine and certain other States to pass laws providing for the inspection of the graduated apparatus used in these tests, thus assuring the farmer that he will obtain full credit for the fat contained in his dairy products. An inspection of nursery stock for insect and fungus diseases is in operation in 20 of the States. The San José scale, probably the most injurious single insect with which the American fruit-grower has to contend, was introduced into this country through a nursery in one of the Eastern States, a fatality that would hardly have been possible had the present inspection laws been in force. Maine and a few other States also exercise an inspection of seeds, thus assuring the farmer of the purity of his seeds and preventing the introduction of injurious weeds. The variability in the composition of paris green, the most abundantly used of all insecticides, has resulted in the passage of laws requiring its inspection in Louisiana, New York, Texas, New Jersey, and Missouri. Although these laws are of comparatively recent date, a grossly adulterated sample of paris green is already quite exceptional in those States.

Thus it is seen that the various States are doing a great work for the protection of the farmer. These various inspections have resulted in greatly reducing, if not entirely preventing, the sale of inferior and adulterated products, and, what is perhaps more important, they have indirectly educated the farmer, opening up to him the possibilities of his farm under conditions of modern farm practice, and have thus very appreciably contributed to the material wealth of the country.

THE SECRET OF SUCCESSFUL MOTORING.

BY M. C. KRARUP.

IT was estimated in Mr. Haines' article in the January REVIEW OF REVIEWS that 100,000 private passenger automobiles would be operated in America in 1907, and that 50,000 new cars would be purchased this year.

This means that many thousand readers of the REVIEW OF REVIEWS will have changed their horse and wagon transportation for motor traveling, and that some entirely new problems are before them.

To the average reader of this magazine who has threshed out the question of changing his horse and wagon for an automobile, and who has bought his car, or is about to buy it, the next puzzling question is: How much *must* I know about the intricate and elaborate piece of machinery, in this new family vehicle,—I who am no mechanic, who, in fact, do not know "beans" about the gas engine, and the electrical apparatus that fires it?

In other words, what is the irreducible minimum of knowledge about an automobile that one must have to give the car a fair chance of normal life, effectiveness, and economy? Here are thousands of physicians, suburban dwellers, well-to-do farmers, spending from \$500 to \$5000 each for a totally new vehicle. It may lose 20 per cent. of its value in the first year, and it may lose 75 per cent. The difference depends most largely on how the car is treated.

Any answer must be largely relative, varying with different cars and different requirements of travel, and it is also to be said that with a motor a little knowledge may be a very dangerous thing. Tinkering in a tentative, half-informed way with a gasoline motor car is a very dubious thing for the car and the pocketbook of the motorist. Unless you know what you are doing, have adjustments made by a good mechanic. So, to begin with, every one who buys a car with the idea of operating and caring for it himself will learn to apply the clutch, start the car, change gears, apply brakes, fill the gasoline tank with fuel, the lubricating reservoir with oil, and the radiator with water, how to set the throttle and adjust the spark for starting and going, how to stop slowly or quickly, and how to steer; with nervous tempera-

ments the act of subconscious control of the steering wheel should be learned very slowly and gradually.

Now if there is some one to keep the car in condition for you, these are practically all the things that you would have to know to operate it. But this "if" is such an overwhelmingly big one! Keeping the car in good condition is much more important, in avoiding breakdowns, than skillful operating.

To keep the motor in good condition, the first and most important thing to understand is its lubrication. Oiling *regularly* is the chief secret of success. Here is the best way to learn the art:

Secure a chart showing every place in the car where lubrication is wanted, the brand of lubricant adapted for each place, and the number of miles of travel after which oil must be renewed in each place.

To get this a strong letter to the manufacturer will be necessary, as he is apt to take the ground that his instruction book is final and encyclopedic. Here is a letter that ought to bring out the information:

GENTLEMEN: I am thinking of buying one of your cars, model —, from your agent, John Doe, and intend to operate the car myself. Please send me one or more drawings or prints showing plainly every spot in the mechanism of this car where a part must be oiled or greased, each spot to be numbered and an annotation to be made stating the number of miles of travel after which the lubricant must be renewed. State also in each case whether the old oil or grease is to be cleaned out, or simply replenished, and explicitly what brand of oil or grease is recommended. If any oil or grease receptacle is liable to leak, spilling the contents and rendering mileage on one filling uncertain, please state what precautions should be taken.

In addition, please send me a list of repair men within 250 miles' radius, whom you can absolutely recommend for their skill in adjusting and repairing your cars.

To illustrate what the lubrication of your automobile means, the following directions apply to a particular popular model; they sound more formidable than they really are, when the motorist has secured the simple scheme described in the letter:

(1) An adjustable force-feed oiler with six feed tubes supplies cylinder oil to three engine-shaft bearings, to the water-pump shaft, and to two shaft bearings in the transmission case, all by

direct feed, and the overflow from the first three tubes keeps up a supply (2) of about three pints of oil in the crank-shaft casing, from which oil is splashed into the cylinders by the motion of the engine shaft and the connecting rods.

The supply in the force-feed oiler should be replenished after each trip, on principle, and after 50 miles of travel, anyway.

After every 300 miles of travel any deficiency of oil in the crank-case (2) should be taken up. This may be done by adding oil until the exhaust shows blue smoke, when the engine is running throttled, but a better way is to drain what remains in the crank-case into a can, make up what it lacks of three pints, close the drain, and pour back three pints.

After 900 miles, drain oil from crank-case, as before. Then remove exhaust-valve caps and squirt a pint of kerosene into each cylinder, crank the motor (with throttle shut, spark off) several times. The kerosene dissolves carbon deposits in the cylinders and rinses the crank-case. Then close drain, fill three pints of cylinder oil in crank-case, squirt a tablespoonful of cylinder oil into each cylinder, crank engine a few times to distribute the oil; return exhaust-valve caps.

(3 to 10) Valve stems and plungers should be oiled at the outset of every trip, and every 50 miles a few drops from a hand oiler should be added.

(11) A grease cup supplying a rear bearing on the water-pump shaft should be given a turn to the right every 100 miles; cup should be replenished every 300 miles.

(12) The cam-shaft gears should be lubricated with grease mixed with powdered graphite every 100 miles.

(13) A grease cup on the clutch disk should be given a turn every 100 miles and replenished every 300 miles. The clutch-yoke rollers (14) should be oiled liberally every 100 miles; also the thrust bearing (15) at the end of the clutch spring.

The transmission box (16) is supplied with a gallon of heavy-body oil with an admixture of graphite, to be cleaned out and renewed every 2000 miles.

Covers should be removed from universal joints (17 and 18) every 4000 miles, and the grease therein renewed.

The manufacturer at present prescribes to renew every six months, but, in order to simplify the system, every lubricating operation not daily should be determined by mileage to obviate oversight.

The differential case (19) on the rear axle is packed with grease and graphite sufficient for "six months' running," say 4000 miles. But in this case the possibility exists that the grease may soften by the heat developed in the gears and may run out through the axle tubes into the rear wheel-brake drums, and out; if this should happen, a general cleaning-out with kerosene and repacking with grease will be required. The unmechanical motorist must prefer a different arrangement.

Where bearings (20, 21, 22, 23) are packed with grease, these should be cleaned out and replenished "every month," say every 900 miles. (In this case, there is also an adjustment of a

ball-bearing to be looked after, when each wheel is replaced).

The steering gear (24) is packed with grease, which may be left undisturbed for "a whole season," say 8000 miles; but, in addition, two oil cups are provided (25, 26) which should be filled "occasionally," say every 2000 miles. Hand oiling takes care of ball-and-socket joints (27, 28) on the steering rod, the bearings (29, 30, 31, 32) of the knuckles and the joints (33, 34) of the drag link "occasionally," say every 1000 miles.

Spring-shackle bearings (35 to 42), brake-rod joints (43, 44, 45), bearings in the gear-shifting shaft (46, 47, 48, 49) and clutch-shifting countershaft (50, 51) should be oiled by hand, say every 400 miles, or, in order to coincide with other acts of oiling, every 300 miles.

The purchaser of a car has a right to find the force-feed oiler adjusted and, if he adheres strictly to one brand of oil, there will be no need of changing the adjustment.

Along with lubrication in importance comes an understanding of the electrical system by which the spark is produced to fire the charge of gasoline vapor compressed in the engine cylinders.

Have a diagram made illustrating the electric wiring of the car; make repeated visual comparisons between the diagram and the actual connections on the car, till the precise manner in which connections should be made is learned. In case of replacements, consult the diagram to make sure that the original condition is exactly reproduced.

Rule I.—In case of ignition by magneto learn strictly the manufacturer's instructions for lubrication, cleanliness, and protection.

By buying a "coil current indicator" and applying it as directed by the makers to make sure that not more than a one-fourth ampere current is passed through the coil, long life is secured for batteries, and frequent filing and adjustment of vibrator points are avoided.

Rule II.—Don't interfere with the adjustment of the coil, as made by the manufacturer, until the vibrator points begin to throw sparks when buzzing.

Rule III.—Don't interfere with the adjustment of the carburetor, as made by the manufacturer.

It will remain right for thousands of miles, until some movable part of the carburetor or throttle becomes worn, and then the remedy lies in the replacement of the worn part. Adjustment, once lost, is difficult to reproduce correctly for all engine speeds.

Rule IV.—When filling a radiator with water or non-freezing mixture, open air vents, if any are provided, and fill slowly, so as to make sure that air, contained in cylinder jackets and the

pump, is expelled. Close vents and replace filler cap.

Rule V.—In case of trouble, consult the manufacturer's instruction book with regard to cause and remedy, before tinkering or resorting to any unrecommended chauffeur or repairman. In some instruction books symptoms of trouble are indexed and readily found.

Rule VI.—Wash out cylinders and crank-case with kerosene every 1000 miles.

The method of doing this is referred to under the sample enumeration of parts to be lubricated.

Rule VII.—Every 1000 miles test every nut and bolt with a wrench and tighten if found loose. Tighten nuts on tire lugs within 50 miles after a new tire has been put on.

Every 1000 miles take muffler apart and clean its parts and vents.

Rule VIII.—With the advent of cold weather drain all water from the radiator pipes, and cylinder jackets (opening all petcocks provided for this purpose), and fill instead with calcium chloride, free from acid as tested by litmus paper, and soft water, in the proportion of 2 pounds to each gallon of water.

Rule IX.—To wash a car use a hose and cold water, guiding the stream clear of all electrical apparatus. Clean grease from vehicle body and running gear by large sponge and cold soap-suds; rinse with hose; dry, when perfectly clean, with chamois.

Rule X.—When a car is taken out of service for one week or longer, the tires should be fully inflated and the wheels jacked up, resting the axles on wooden bucks; the contents of the whole cooling apparatus should be drained off. If the car is to remain without attention for one month or longer, the cylinders should be cleaned out with kerosene and well oiled. The place of storage should be dry, cool, and darkened. All external parts subject to rust or tarnish should be coated with oil or paraffin. Upholstering should be covered; folding top opened; curtains let down.

Rule XI.—Learn as soon as possible the adjustment for wear of clutch, or clutches, and brakes; also the best method of starting the motor in cold weather. These differ in different machines.

In the vexatious matter of tire troubles, there is more luck; no amount of good management can reduce expense in the same degree as it is reduced in the engine and wiring by keeping the car tuned up. Yet, even with tires, many experts believe that 75 per cent. of the accidents may be avoided by regular inspection of the pneumatics in the barn, and by an absolute rule to moderate speed in making turns.

The best management of a car will include raising each wheel with a jack after a run, spinning the wheel round and looking for the "pimples" on the tire that foretell blow-outs.

No rule in regard to the manner of operating a car is absolute or valid for all cars without exception. The following may be found of practical and general interest:

Practice steering with the left hand; the right hand will then be free to operate throttle, spark, change-gear, and emergency brake at any moment, and thereby accident may be avoided.

Going down hill, moderate the speed by shutting the throttle completely, so as to make the car drag the engine through its motions without explosions; if the hill is steep, change to low gear. At the bottom of the hill, open the throttle before the car has lost its momentum. With a car of as high power for its weight as is desirable, it is not necessary to apply brakes for descending a hill, and the method described saves the brake surfaces.

When a car skids on a slippery surface, release clutch slightly without applying brake; then re-engage clutch gradually. If rear wheels skid sideways, turn front wheels a little to the same side, if the traffic permits.

A car with planetary gear may be slowed down by applying the reverse clutch, and a backward movement may be stopped by the low forward gear. This method is useful for close maneuvering in street traffic.

When leaving a car standing in cold weather with the engine shut down, blanket the radiator, whether it contains water or anti-freezing mixture. This will facilitate restarting. When stopping, turn spark completely off, and then, while the engine slows down, throw the throttle three-fourths open. This will often make it possible to start the motor next time by simply switching the spark on.

When wishing to speed up by the throttle, advance (usually by pulling back) the throttle lever first, the spark lever afterward; the latter slowly.

When slowing down by the throttle, first retard the spark, then throttle down. When opening the throttle to take a hill better, but not for speed, don't advance the spark.

If throttle and spark lever are in one (not common, any more), always advance or retard slowly and gradually.

Never drive with open throttle and spark more retarded than central position; to do so causes overheating of exhaust parts.

After cranking a motor, while the spark switch is turned off, by mistake, don't turn the switch on and crank again. The muffler will contain an explosive mixture, which, fired by the first exhaust, may blow it open. First expel the charge from the muffler by cranking with the throttle shut, then open throttle, turn switch on, and crank the third time.

Any one who observes the routine outlined in the foregoing will find troubles reduced to such a satisfactory minimum that he may well afford to have recourse to a repairman or a "visiting chauffeur," if perhaps his engine valves may finally require grinding or if the bearings of connecting-rods should need to be "taken up."

LEADING ARTICLES OF THE MONTH.

THE PRESIDENT, CALIFORNIA, AND THE JAPANESE.

FROM the mass of comment, pro and con, on that part of President Roosevelt's message which referred to the difficulty over the Japanese school children in San Francisco, we quote portions of three rather striking and representative views: (1) that of Congressman Julius Kahn (representing the San Francisco district in the House of Representatives); (2) of the Baba Bharati, a Hindu teacher, editor of the *Light of India*; and (3) that of Mr. Soshai, a Japanese writer of note.

The Californian point of view is presented with vigor by Congressman Kahn in an article in the *Independent*. The people of the west coast, says Mr. Kahn, should be permitted to judge of the question of Oriental immigration, since they know more about it than Eastern Americans do. He reviews the subject of Chinese and Japanese coolie labor, presenting the well-known objections to those of cheapness, low standard of living, and the difference in moral codes. The Chinese coolie, says Mr. Kahn, was a "canker in the heart of our civilization," despite of his industry and frugality. The Japanese, on the other hand, have all the vices of the Chinese with few or none of their virtues. The people of California "regard these Japanese coolies with greater abhorrence,—aye, with greater fear,—than they do the coolies from China." The Japanese, further, are "devoid of the sense of business honor which characterizes the Chinaman." The people of California, however, have never made objection to merchants, bankers, and professional men from Japan. "It is the coolie against whom they protest." There has been, the Congressman continues, no denial of treaty rights to the Japanese. At the same time, he admits,

Californians freely express the belief that the existing treaty, under which Japanese coolies come to our shores at the present rate of 1000 per month, is not an altogether equitable instrument. They contend, on the contrary, that the treaty is altogether one-sided.

Its unfairness consists in the fact that while the Japanese want to come here, no Americans want to go to Japan to work. If similar conditions confronted the citizens

of Massachusetts, he continues, "we feel confident that they, too, would feel as we do." In the school matter, the San Francisco Board of Education was "within its legitimate rights in segregating Japanese scholars from the white children."

And the sentiment of the entire State is behind the Board of Education; and this sentiment is backed up by the opinions of some of our most eminent jurists as to the legality of the board's contention. I feel confident that Californians will never permit their young children to be thrown into close contact with adult Japanese.

California, in conclusion, will bitterly oppose the granting of naturalization rights to Japanese. Admitting the patriotism of the Japanese, Mr. Kahn believes that no matter how he might have forsworn allegiance to the Mikado, "if ever the time should come when there might be a struggle between our country and his native land, his sympathies, his influence, and his actual support would go to that native land."

"The Sage of the White House."

In a strongly worded article under the above title, in his little magazine, the *Light of India*, Baba Bharati characterizes President Roosevelt's stand on the Japanese-Californian question as "magnificent." "The American President has proved himself to be the one ruler of the modern West who has his fingers on the pulse of the world politics of the present and the future, and he feels that pulse aright."

President Roosevelt's vindication of the demand of the Japanese to be treated equally with the Americans in America, in his last message to Congress, will furnish a luminous page to the history of western nations in these aggressive modern times. However much it may now be criticised by individual Americans or by selfish political or industrial bodies on the Pacific Coast, the time will soon come when Americans as a nation will feel prouder of Theodore Roosevelt than they do even now. And Theodore Roosevelt's heart and moral self will, in his declining years, derive from it warmer comfort than from anything he has hitherto done during his strenuous stewardship of his nation's affairs. This Japanese part of his message stamps Mr. Roosevelt as a statesman with a far-sighted sagacity which his contemporaries do not possess. The manifesto is born of pure wisdom, the wisdom which belongs to the Old World; the wisdom

which, to the peril of the modern nations, is getting out of date; the wisdom which, when betrayed by a western statesman of to-day, is construed into an exhibition of eccentricity. But Roosevelt's manifesto precludes the possibility of such an opinion, except obstinate bigotry or personal animosity to the author. Its hall-mark of absolute sincerity and genuine inspiration is apparent in every word and sentence, but it is the inspiration that is the essence of the sincerity. It is an inspired declaration, to be sure, inspired from the highest source of illumination, of which its truth, vigor, and boldness of expression are the best proofs. It is patriotic, it is humanitarian, it is absolutely appreciative. It has been delivered from a pedestal high above politics, unknown to diplomacy, out of the reach of prejudice.

The Japanese Viewpoint.

One of the most striking features of the San Francisco-Japanese incident has been the reserve of the Japanese. In a recent issue of the *Courrier Européen* (Paris), however, Mr. Soshai, a Japanese writer of considerable note in his own country, handles the subject in extenso.

Mr. Soshai's personal opinion is that

The Californian incident may be considered of only relative importance in the relations of the United States and Japan, although the arbitrary exclusion of our compatriots from the schools has deeply wounded the pride of the Japanese. The President of the United States, however, may easily adjust the differences,—perhaps to the advantage of the Japanese. But the task of destroying the anti-Japanese feeling, of extirpating from Californian soil this weed which grows with the increasing presence of the Japanese and the rivalry of interests, is a task which even the ability and energy of Mr. Roosevelt cannot accomplish.

According to the annual of Mr. Ito Suke-yoshi, the *Sekai Nenkan*, in 1903 there were 27 Japanese residing in Washington, D. C.; 6482 in the State of Washington; 1403 in New York City; 295 in the State of New York; 103 in Chicago; 115 in Missouri; 5123 in San Francisco; 18,123 in California, exclusive of San Francisco; 50 in New Mexico; 240 in Colorado; 432 in Nevada; 372 in Utah; 318 in Arizona; 209 in Alaska; 909 in Idaho; 1365 in Montana; 2466 in Oregon; 853 in Wyoming; 49 in other States. The total in the United States, according to the Japanese statistician, was therefore 38,934, against 67,740 in the Hawaiian Islands and 1995 in the Philippines.

Mr. Soshai calls attention to an article in the *Shinkoron* entitled "A Batch of Notes on the New Japan," this "New Japan" being nothing less than California. In this discussion the writer urges his countrymen to emigrate to the United States; and an-



THE PART GREATER THAN THE WHOLE.

JAPAN: "May I ask, are you the 'United States?'"

UNCLE SAM: "Waal, I can't say right away. I'm just con-sultin' California on that vurry point."

From *Punch* (London).

other article in the same periodical, but of later date, continues to assure the Japanese that of all countries the United States in general and California in particular are the most important and promising for the Japanese emigrant.

It would therefore seem that Japanese emigration to California is a well-developed propaganda, and that the advantages of the country are duly and generally appreciated by the Nipponese. The news of the San Francisco disturbance has, however, rudely shocked the national ambitions, and although there has been little or no expression of feeling, this feeling is none the less resentful. One or two quotations from Mr. Soshai's article will indicate this.

The moderate *Asahi Shimbun* of Tokio observes that "the United States loaded us with favors during the Russo-Japanese War, but now they have fallen into the prejudices and errors which are the bane of all other nations." And in the *Jiyu Tsushin*, Count Okuma takes note "of the disagreeable fact that there is an anti-Japanese movement in the United States."

However, we will remain calm for the reason that the United States have been our best friends

for the past 50 years. This reserved attitude, therefore, prevents us from saying anything about our neighbors on the other side of the water. But I am convinced that the present trouble is only a temporary movement, and I am sure that all Japanese will agree with me that in time the American people will do us justice. Nevertheless, while the San Francisco disturbance is a trivial affair if it is fanned merely by the labor leaders, it is serious if the controlling classes are back of it. In any event we must

make our appeal to the broad spirit of the American people, for in the eyes of humanity and the world the greatness of the United States consists in their high standard of right and equity. In my opinion President Roosevelt and his ministers will do us justice, and I hope that in a short time the amicable relations between the two countries will be resumed with greater cordiality than ever. If this is not the case, however, I must say that the Japanese are not the people to tolerate insult from any other power.

THE HOUSING PROBLEM IN SAN FRANCISCO.

THE San Francisco disaster of last April was not productive of evil only, for it strikingly revealed just what elements are essential to the economic welfare of a community.

The problem of distributing the funds which were sent for the relief of the stricken city was an enormous one. Yet, for the relief commission to limit its labors practically to work of a temporary character, in the line of building to erect only temporary quarters for the aged and helpless, seemed a mistake to many, among whom was Dr. Edward T. Devine, who was chairman of two relief committees, and who succeeded in securing the adoption of reports embodying this idea. Of his labors in this direction Dr. Devine gives an interesting account in the current number of the *Political Science Quarterly*.

After the earthquake and fire had completed their work, San Francisco was a city without homes and without incomes. For one month there was a reign of brotherly love such as the poets and sages have pictured. Laborers, professional men, servants, and captains of industry served without compensation or even the promise of pay. The bitterest of political enemies worked harmoniously for the common good,—worked hard and long, day and night. Food came from relief stations, and clothing came from the second-hand bureaus. "Hand-out" methods took the place of purchase and sale, for there were neither markets nor money with which to buy in them.

But suddenly the great altruistic wave spent its force. People moved on the streets as before, but with different motives. Free transportation ceased. Commercial rather than relief consignments of goods began to arrive. Restaurants, provision markets, and clothing stores began to multiply. "Crowds no longer besieged the mayor's office and central relief bureaus, although in

the camps and in the local districts systematic relief was to continue for many weeks." The lighting, water, and sewer systems were repaired, and the street-cars began to make money again. The people were still badly handicapped, it is true, but by the end of May the ordinary economic life of the city had been resumed. The problem of incomes was solved.

The destruction of the homes of one-half the population of such a city as San Francisco meant a far greater loss than that of income.

Here we have a glimpse of the housing problem as it faced the authorities last spring:

At this writing practically no homes have as yet been rebuilt; and it is reasonably certain that between 50,000 and 100,000 people,—say, 20,000 families,—will find themselves compelled to leave San Francisco definitely for at least a year, or to live in temporary dwellings in which no real home life is possible, or to crowd into basements or living-rooms already sufficiently occupied but capable of overcrowding under compulsion, as living-rooms have been crowded before in other cities, with consequences so well known as not to require enumeration.

Dr. Devine was quick to see the need of financial aid in the erection of reasonably priced houses, and before the end of April he had called the attention of the emergency committee to this need, and advocated that a portion of the relief fund be devoted to the erection of attractive dwellings to be sold or rented to refugees then living in tents. The suggestion was not favorably acted upon at first, but on June 26 it was adopted by a special committee of the relief commission which had then succeeded the army and National Red Cross agencies. An elaborate and detailed plan was worked out by the committee and received the sanction of representatives of the New York Chamber of Commerce and the Massachusetts Relief Association, "each of which bodies still retained approximately a half million dollars

which had been raised for the relief of San Francisco."

To the committee the question of shelter seemed to be of such importance as to require the co-operation of architects and builders; and it was recommended that \$1,000,000, or some such amount, be invested in acquiring land and erecting dwellings to be sold or rented on reasonable terms of monthly payments. After further study and consultation with architects and practical builders, a still more careful and detailed report was unanimously adopted both by the relief commission and the rehabilitation committee on July 11.

Mr. M. H. De Young suggested the plan of giving a bonus not to exceed \$500 to any person who owned a lot in the burnt district and who was in a position immediately to rebuild. In no instance was the bonus to exceed the value of the building to be erected, and the money was to be paid to the contractor on the completion of the work. The one object was to secure the early rebuilding of the city. It was estimated that not more than \$250,000 would be necessary for the construction and repair of the temporary structures, and the remainder was to be used in the erection of houses.

It was a golden opportunity. It would doubtless have meant untold wealth to San Francisco, for thousands would have returned to the city as soon as dwellings could have been rented or bought. Representative labor

leaders favored the plan strongly, for in it they saw what they thought was probably the greatest opportunity ever likely to be presented to the workingmen of the community to become home-owners. Twice did the secretary of the Building Trades Council appear before the committee in support of the plan.

But it was rejected; to the committee it seemed impracticable. The reasons assigned for this decision were three: 1. That the funds were not sufficient to meet the other demands for relief and this one in addition; (2) that there would not be time to build homes before the winter season set in; and (3) that to enter upon such a plan would not be in harmony with the wishes of the donors of the fund, for it would perpetuate rather than dispose of the relief fund.

Dr. Devine thinks that the committee has not acted wisely, though he does not question its motives. He thinks that

by choosing to build almshouses instead of comfortable homes the corporation is unintentionally adopting a policy which will tend to fill almshouses and eventually lessen the demand for homes. It is the peculiar and well-justified boast of San Francisco that it has had few or no pauper dependents. It is earnestly to be hoped that the barracks and temporary quarters for the aged and helpless which they are now building so hurriedly may safely be destroyed in a year or two at most, and that they will not remain,—as has happened under somewhat analogous circumstances in the city of Washington,—to aid subtly in creating a class of residents fit and contented to dwell in them.

THE "NEBRASKA MAN": A PRIMITIVE TYPE.

IN recent years few lines of research have proved more valuable than archeology. Entire schools of biblical criticism have fallen because of discoveries in the valleys of the Nile and Euphrates; and now it would seem that the valley of the Missouri in eastern Nebraska has given us a prehistoric man, "the age of which may be safely reckoned at 10,000 to 20,000 years or more." Mr. Robert F. Gilder, who was the fortunate man to make the discovery only last September, has written interestingly about it in *Putnam's Monthly* for January; and Prof. Henry B. Ward and Erwin H. Barbour, both of the University of Nebraska, at Lincoln, have also thrown further light upon the discovery in the same magazine.

Few rivers flow through more beautiful country than does the Missouri above the

mouth of the "Legendary Platte," in Douglas County, Neb., separating that State from Iowa. Bluffs to the height of from 200 to 500 feet rise on either bank, and few hills of that region afford a more beautiful river view than the one on which the bones were discovered. For years these bluffs have proved a fertile field for archeological research, innumerable evidences having been found that they have been the habitat of man through many succeeding ages. Upon the hill summits are still found sepulchers of the aborigines.

In addition to the numerous mounds to be found in that section are hundreds of circular depressions in the earth, found usually upon the summits of the highest hills and in close proximity to the mounds. It was while trying to find whether the builders of one

had any connection with the builders of the other that Mr. Gilder found small pieces of human bone in the earth which had been removed by boys digging for a rabbit. The hill on which the mound is located is steep and rises 200 feet above the water level. To the trained eye could be seen indications of a circular mound about 20 feet in diameter, but it so happened in this case that a deeper and older burial-ground lay under the shallower and more recent one.

The method of excavation was to run two trenches through the summit of the mound, crossing each other at right angles in the center. Four feet from the top of the hill was found a compact clay bed, which proved to be the original top of the loess hill. Fire had been built upon it, and on the ashes an upper layer of bones was laid, a layer so hard that a spade could penetrate it only with difficulty. But the valuable find was not here, but in the clay which lay beneath it, which clay was once the top or surface of the hill. The loess layer on the top is known to be of comparatively recent origin, being deposit brought down by the river. But

below this layer comes clearly defined bright buff undisturbed original loess, with its characteristic lithological structure, its lime nodules and shells; and through it, to a carefully measured depth of $7\frac{1}{2}$ feet, are scattered bits of human bone, as already mentioned. Here were found the five primitive skulls, each one being more or less fragmentary.

Geologists who have made a study of this section of the country are agreed in attributing extreme age to this original loess, from 10,000 to 20,000 years; and that the fragments of bones found in this formation to a depth of $7\frac{1}{2}$ feet are as ancient as the formation itself can hardly be disputed.

Mr. Barbour, who is State Geologist and curator of the State Museum, says that the lowest representative of the human race yet found is "a speechless fossil man of Java, which occupies a position just half way between man and the apes." Next in development and intellectuality comes the Neanderthal man of Germany. And in about an equal degree does the "Nebraska loess man" show advancement over the Neanderthal.

As to the character of the bones which were discovered in this original loess, Professor Wards says that:

Unfortunately, it has not yet been possible to reconstruct the facial skeleton from the fragments at hand, and one cannot say whether there was any tendency to prognathism. Judging

from the location of the glenoid cavity and the length of the lower jaw, the latter probably did not project very conspicuously. This lower jaw is one of the most remarkable parts of the skeleton. It is relatively short, very massive, and double the thickness of a modern mandible. The mental protuberance is marked in possessing a strongly developed roll on the basal margin, which emphasizes the effect of its massive body.

All the long bones of the skeleton are massive, of more than average length, and distinguished by the very unusual prominence of the rough areas for muscle attachment and also of the protuberances which subserve the same function. In these particulars the leg bones are most striking. Their development indicates clearly the platycnemic condition usually regarded as characteristic of primitive people. The femur has a strong curve forward, which is not lacking in modern skeletons, but has been noted by many as peculiarly characteristic of ancient femora.

The manner of burial differed radically from that observed in other mounds in the vicinity. After the lower stratum of skeletons had been placed in the ground, earth had then been placed on top and burned to the consistency of a plaster wall. In another part of the mound, about 5 feet away, lay the upper layer of skeletons; but, with three exceptions, these skeletons had also been disarticulated and were more or less scattered about. A noticeable feature in connection with the skulls was the fact that the left temporal bone had been crushed, a club or heavy utensil having probably been used for that purpose. The general position of the skeletons seems to have been with the head toward the center and the feet extending outward. Two of the skeletons had been placed in a squatting position, the femurs and spinal vertebrae being in a vertical position close together.

The condition of the teeth is unique among specimens of this kind. In the lower jaw they are ground down to about the level of the gums, even the third molars, or wisdom teeth, showing the effect of hard usage; and the canines show only the dentine on their upper surface, with but a marginal line of enamel seen in profile. This feature appears in all the jaws of this collection and shows that the food material was of the hardest kind,—perhaps roots and grains.

Associated with the skeletons were a few flint implements of crude design, very unlike the well-formed flaked flint knives found with the upper layer of skeletons, duplicates of which Mr. Gilder has frequently found in the circles of that vicinity.

THE STRAIN AND RISK OF LIFE IN A SUBMARINE.

THE increasing use of the submarine boat and its adoption by all the naval nations of the world make it expedient to get some working knowledge of the means of preventing such disasters as have overtaken both the French and English navies alike.

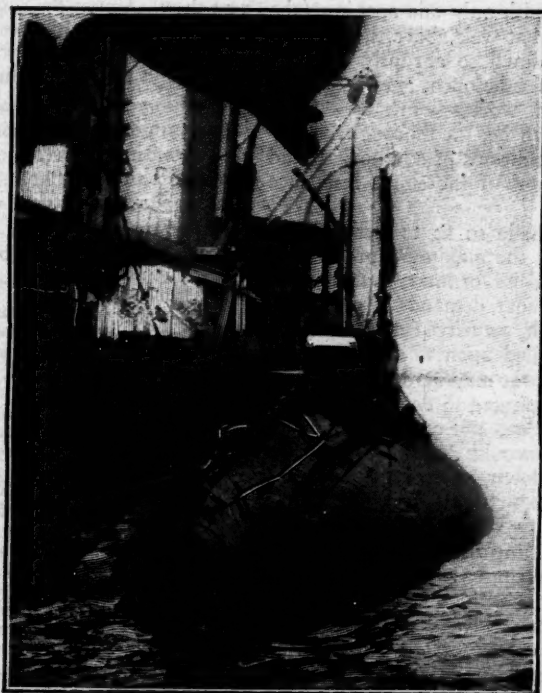
For some time France stood almost alone in the use of the submarine. After watching her neighbor for a long time, England has now come forward and adopted this craft for her own use. Germany also has launched her first submarine. Sir William White, ex-director of the Naval Construction Board of Great Britain, has reminded us of the fact that the self-acting torpedo, —to act at a safe distance from its ship,—made the submarine a possibility, which would be useless were she not able to plant her projectile beyond her own danger line. In a detailed study of the submarine boat which appears in the *Revue Scientifique* (Paris) M. Daniel Bellet says that the different types of the submarine are more or less similar in their general principles is proved by the fact that all the submarines known to have met with accidents (French and English) have suffered from the same dangers. Avoiding mention of the *Lu-tin*, which we all remember but too well, we shall glance at the French and English fleets of the past,—at the catastrophes of the *A1* and the *A8* (British Navy), the *Farfadet* (French), and the *Delfinn* (Russian).

Those four catastrophes were due to the entrance of water through the hoods of the boats. The conditions of the disasters were different, but the general cause was the same: the sea entered the ships through their hoods. The *A1* was wrecked because there was a ship in her way. It was an ordinary ship, but she did not see it, and as she plunged she struck its hull. The commander's "turret" was stove in and the water entered. The *Farfadet* was wrecked

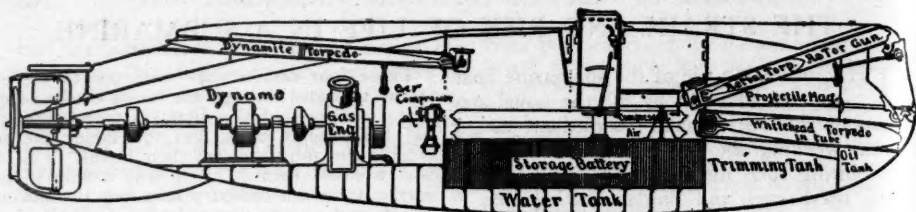
by seas that rushed in through the hood. The hood, which is situated in the commander's turret, is the passageway, and it is probable that it was imperfectly closed when this boat plunged. The *A1* was wrecked in the same way: the sea rushed in and the pumps were not powerful enough to drive it out. When the *Delfinn* was wrecked conditions were different. All the men of the crew were in the ship, but the water in those parts was very sweet and therefore less dense, and a great deal of it had entered before any one noticed it. In the case of the *A8* they were not getting ready to plunge when the water entered the hood, but, as the boat was going

pretty fast, all that they had to do to right her was to give her head. That brought the turret to the height of the water. (Normally, the top of the turret is nearly three meters above the surface of the water). When sailing on the surface the hood must be open to permit the entrance of the air that is necessary in running the petroleum motor.

All these accidents prove that the first danger is from contact with obstacles strong enough to break in the hull of the submarine. The first danger is involuntary submersion,—the "drowning" of the boat, either by leak or by careless neglect to close the hood. But the submarine, when navigating even at



A SUBMARINE BOAT OF THE BRITISH NAVY.
(Submarine No. 2 alongside the cruiser *Hazard*, showing its peculiar bows.)



From the *Scientific American*.

A LONGITUDINAL SECTION OF THE "HOLLAND," SUBMARINE TORPEDO BOAT.

a prudent speed, with only one opening (the natural one, and that well above the water), is liable to dive down so abruptly that the opening, which must be open, goes below the water. For good work,—work as safe as such work ever can be,—a thorough knowledge of all the conditions of equilibrium and of all the conditions of the ship's resistance is required.

Steel is now made so as to guarantee a submarine against the maximum pressure of the water during its ordinary submersion. But the torpedo boat demands a coefficient of extremely high security for the depths that it may be called upon to explore,—and without warning. It may be dragged down, or it may be precipitated to depths for which its resisting power was not calculated; depths to which no ship would descend of its own will,—and once down, there is no one who comes back to report reasons or to make estimates.

Any leak permitting the passage of a heavy sea prevents all attempts at self-preservation. Compartmentage (with water-tight partitions) would localize leaks and retard the asphyxiation of the crew of a drowning ship. But that fact does not save a crew if it cannot get at any means of safety when shut up in a water-tight box between two boxes full of water. In such a position, how could a crew get at the working gear? How could the ship be sent to the surface?

When the boat sinks and cannot rise by her own means her chance of salvation is small. Hope is vain if the hull is down to such a depth that the column of water must have crushed it had such an event been the alternative. If the hull is intact, and if the sea permits such action, a tube may possibly be let down and fixed upon an opening of the hull, compressed air of high pressure may be passed through the tube, and the boat may be sent to the surface. If there is a leak it may be stopped and the boat driven up. There may be no other way to save the boat than to raise it entirely suspended by tacklings, but this is not an easy matter. The submarine is heavy, and, if hard to balance when running at full speed, what must it be to tackle it in a heavy sea? As to explosions, a careful crew can pre-

vent them. Unless the ship is sailing with hood open, when the ventilation is intense, there is no emission of dangerous vapors.

Life in the Submarine.

Nothing but real experience can give an idea of the desperate conditions of the life, the unceasing effort, the crushing labor, of the men who serve in the submarine torpedo boat, the long steel tube which at any instant may become their coffin. From an article in the *Annales* (Paris), by M. Durand, we glean the following:

The interior of the submarine is a narrow runway, like a space between piled-up packing boxes left open to permit the passage of the handlers. The inner sides are lined with the cases containing the generators, which run through the ship from end to end. In the narrow passage between the generators live the men. Each has his place; it is his by rigorous official assignment. Down there the least of liberties would be fatal. Running along the ceiling of this death-trap are the wires, painted white or red,—the boat's arteries, circulating the power that animates the different organs, while along the inner sides or walls are the dials of the indicators and the shining knobs of the generators. When the ship dives lights are reverberated from the gleaming metal, and for an instant they reveal the anguish of the crew; the ghastly faces, every nerve tense, appear and vanish. Then the boat shifts, and black darkness falls again.

Immediately under the only opening in the steel tube directly in the center of the ship is the place corresponding to the "office" of men who live under normal conditions. Here is a place just large enough to hold a man. It is called the maneuver bureau, or some other equally high-sounding name. The motors, the dynamos which furnish the power of propulsion, are usually in the rear.

Breathless, tight-sealed as in a tomb, is the place where the men do their deadly work:

Cramped there, within limitations just large enough to hold their bodies, hang the crew, eyes haggard, hair drenched with acrid sweat, jaws set, crushing back the tortured impulses of the physical. They cannot stretch leg or arm; they know that they pose the ship; let them stir a

muscle and the whole ship trembles. There is no exercise, no rest. To relax self-control, to forget, is fatal, and an unguarded movement may bring about death under appalling circumstances. The watch is on day and night. But down there there is no day. It is always night,—not the night of rest, but the night of torment.

The boat is balanced, the men are cramped into their allotted places, and the man who maneuvers the ship is on the top rung of a little iron ladder running straight up and down under the cap of the ship.

On one of the rungs of the ladder crouches the first officer, with feet wide apart, balancing the ship. The second officer is on a rung below, his head between the knees of the first. The second officer gives the orders. There they perch on the torturing rungs of their ladder, and there they are forced to hang during the greater part of the maneuvers. The ship is ready for her work. "On guard to the plunger! fill the ballast!" From the instant that the ballasts are

full,—silence, black night, anguish! The life of the depths has begun, and all communication with the world has ceased. They are darting down. The engines are driving. It has begun! The submarine is rushing downward like a frightened fish,—not borne downward by her weight, but forced downward by her propelling power and steered downward by her helm. There is no rest for her. To rest for a submarine is to rush upward. Rest, ever so little, and she would appear above the surface. She must keep moving to keep down. That is the way she works, forever moving until her work is done. As for the men who run her, sealed in her hollow tube,—in war they are on deadly duty; in peace on drill almost as deadly. As men they have ceased to be. Once on duty as torpedoists they are nothing but elements of the submarine, an integral part of it. Down there is the noisome darkness of that pulsing thing; they are one with the wires of the dynamos. They are part of the machinery. The only difference between them and the other parts of the working gear is that they can suffer.

THE \$200,000,000 TUNNELS OF NEW YORK CITY.

THE modern method of constructing a tunnel under a river differs very materially from that used by the ancients. When the Assyrians wanted to build a tunnel under the Euphrates a new channel was dug, a dam erected, and a continuous arch of water-tight masonry was then built along the bottom of the old channel, after which the dam was removed and the water allowed to flow in its old bed. But, with no interruption to commerce, and with a speed equal to that of railroad construction in a mountainous country, over a dozen tunnels are now burrowing their way under the waters surrounding New York city. The methods of construction and the difficulties that have to be overcome are described by Charles H. Cochrane in *Moody's Magazine* (New York) for December.

The approximate cost of these 14 tunnels is \$200,000,000, or about one-fifth of a billion dollars; and they are built for one purpose only,—to save time. It is estimated that at least a million people go in and out of Manhattan every day. At the average of 25 cents an hour in value, this will mean a saving of \$62,500 a day, or \$23,000,000 a year. The construction of these tunnels constitutes one of the most notable engineering achievements of the age, not less costly and difficult in execution than the Panama Canal, though not the occasion of domestic or international agitation.

Six of these tunnels are being constructed

by the Pennsylvania Railroad: four under the East River, and two under the Hudson, thus giving uninterrupted subway connection between New Jersey and Long Island. Indeed, if rumor be true, when the Pennsylvania tunnels are completed, transatlantic passengers will soon be taking the steamer at Montauk Point, thus cutting down the trip from New York to Europe seven hours.

The two Manhattan tubes near Christopher street will serve as a subway to railway depots in both Jersey City and Hoboken. The tubes from Jersey City to Cortlandt street, within a block of Broadway, will relieve the congestion of lower Manhattan, and the Battery tubes connecting with the new Brooklyn subway will help materially in lessening the traffic on Brooklyn Bridge. Further north, connecting Grand Central Station with Brooklyn, are the two Belmont tubes, which have been promised for completion early in 1907, though a recent daily press report states that two years will be necessary to complete the work.

Thus, enter New York from what direction you will, "a tunnel is waiting to receive you, and the time that used to be lost in changing cars and crossing ferries will soon be reduced to five minutes of tunnel travel, ending in arrival in the glare of Broadway or some other center of activity in the greatest city of the western world."

The method adopted in the construction of the tunnels is the one ordinarily used for such



From Moody's Magazine.

purposes. After the soil through which the tunnel was to pass had been determined by means of the diamond drill,

perpendicular well-like shafts were sunk in the earth near the river margin. . . . When a shaft was down about 50 or 60 feet, the rock was blasted out on both sides to form headings, one leading toward the tunnel entrance inland, and the other leading down under the river. . . . A great steel cylinder called a shield is set up in the heading and pushed forward under the river.

This shield is about 2 feet larger in diameter than the tunnel tube, and allows the forward end of the tunnel to be built inside of it. The shield is pushed forward at regular intervals by a series of powerful jack-screws, and thus the work advances. When the tunnel goes through soft sand and mud, the front end of the shield is closed, and it is forced ahead, making an aperture for the tubing; but when the tunnel course lies through rock or hard earth, the front is partly opened by gates, and workmen blast the rock or dig out the earth and pass it back through the air locks.

The atmospheric pressure due to the airlocks is often over 50 pounds to the square inch. Only the stoutest hearts and physiques can work under such a strain, and of course wages are high for such labor. A physician is always near, and when a workman shows any signs of having contracted the "bends," as the caisson disease is called, he is at once sent to the hospital for treatment.

Special difficulty has been experienced with the Pennsylvania tubes under the East River because of blowouts, the excess of air pressure at the tunnel headings forcing its way to the surface through the thin layer of shifting slime. To check this, the soil over the tunnels has been thickened and strengthened by dumping bags of clay into the river from scows. To make the foundation more secure, "screw piles were run through the tunnel bottom at intervals of a few yards, the screws taking a grip on the hard earth far below, thus forming a row of anchors that nothing short of an earthquake could loosen."

The tunnel tubes themselves are made in sections, and are built of cast iron reinforced with cement. The interior is lined with

cement, and benches of concrete on the sides make footpaths for workmen. The ties are bedded in the concrete.

EFFECT ON NEW YORK'S SUBURBS.

The motive power for the cars will be electricity, and the third-rail system will be used. There will be no smoke, no cinders, and no darkness, for each tube will be perpetually lighted by electric lamps strung at intervals along the course. All the tunnels are in pairs, and trains run only in one direction; so that only rear-end collisions will have to be guarded against. Thus will the zone of transportation by electric power be enlarged, for the Erie, the New York Central, and other roads contemplate using that power for all suburban passenger service.

Mr. Cochrane estimates the probable gains in realty values in the vicinity of New York, resulting directly from the tunnel improvements, at more than the total cost of the tunnels, great as that sum is. Thus it appears that the saving of a half-hour in thousands of commuters' time is not to be the sole material benefit of these great works.



From *Moody's Magazine*.

REAR VIEW OF THE TUNNEL SHIELD.

THE GREAT JEWISH INVASION OF NEW YORK.

"IT commemorated the progress of an energetic people from poverty to wealth, from ignorance to knowledge, from political and social ostracism to independence and power." This is the way the recent celebration by the New York Jews of the two hundred and fiftieth anniversary of their settlement on Manhattan Island is characterized by the writer of a graphic, striking article in the January *McClure's Magazine*. This writer, Mr. Burton J. Hendrick, gives us several pages of swinging description, which has been characterized by the editor of the "Jewish Encyclopedia" as making perhaps the most complete article, in this compass, written upon this subject for many years.

The American metropolis, he points out, is already, as far as numbers are concerned, largely Semitic. With its 800,000 Jewish inhabitants, it is "the greatest Hebrew community ever assembled in ancient or modern times in any one place." New York City contains three-fifths of the total Jewish population of the country; in the greater city one man in every five is a Jew; on Manhattan Island, one man in every four. The Hebrew population, moreover, grows faster than the other racial elements. For every 20 Jews that die 35 are born. Indeed, says Mr. Hendrick, a few enthusiasts may preach a return to Palestine, but "the real modern Zion, greater in numbers and wealth and power

than the old, steadily gathers on Manhattan Island."

The Jew, Mr. Hendrick points out, is active,—invariably with success,—in practically every business, professional, and intellectual field of New York City,—as huckster, clerk, bookkeeper, salesman, stenographer, general merchant, financier, proprietor of department store, banker, and politician. The Jew predominates at grand opera. He controls practically all of Manhattan's 50 theaters. He is the author of most of the successful plays. He and she, after receiving their training in the Ghetto as actor and actress, now draw enormous audiences on Broadway. In Wall Street he has the larger share of the banking business. He is lawyer at the bar and justice on the bench. He is physician, school teacher, college professor. In the newly organized tenement-house department of the city government more than three-quarters of the 400 employees,—clerks, stenographers, copyists, and inspectors,—are Jews. Jews represent more than one district of the city at Albany and Washington. Jews from New York have been sent abroad as ambassadors, and a New York Jew now sits in President Roosevelt's cabinet.

Unquestionably, says Mr. Hendrick, we are now face to face with one of the most remarkable phenomena of our day and generation:



From *McClure's Magazine*.

A SWEAT-SHOP TYPE—A REMORSELESS PACEMAKER.

New York, the headquarters of American wealth, intelligence, and enterprise,—the most complete physical expression, we have been told, of the American idea,—seems destined to become overwhelmingly a Jewish town. More remarkable still, the great mass of its Jews are not what are commonly regarded as the most enlightened of their race. They are not drawn from Germany, from France, from Austria, and England,—countries in which the Jew has been practically Europeanized,—but from Hungary, from Poland, from Roumania, from Galicia, above all from the Russian Empire. Before the Russian migration began in 1881, New York contained only about 50,000 Jews, practically all Austrians and Germans; since then its Jewish immigrants have come largely from eastern Europe. Between the German and the Russian or Polish Jew there is almost as much difference as between the German and Russian Christian. The former is extremely liberal in his religious observances; the latter extremely orthodox. The one is the product of free institutions and a tolerant civilization; the other is the victim of religious and economic persecution. In New York the German and Russian Jewish populations have always kept distinct. Inter-marriages have been about as infrequent and as much frowned upon as between Protestants and Cath-

olies. Nevertheless, the German element is probably not one-sixth of the whole Jewish population. In a word, New York is not only largely, and probably destined to be overwhelmingly, a city of Hebrews, but a city of Asiatics.

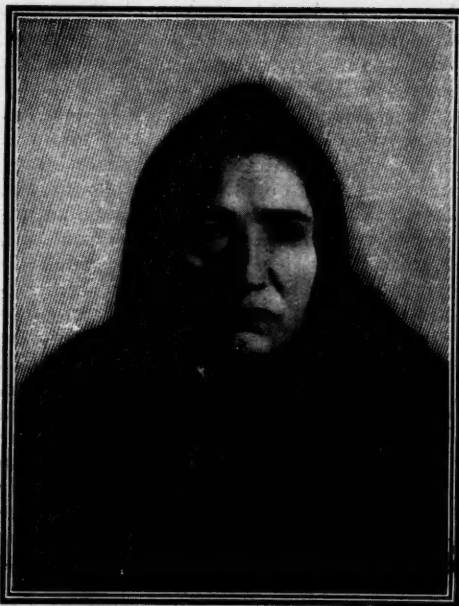
No people, continues this writer, have had a more inadequate preparation, educational and economic, for American citizenship. Their sole capital when they land at Ellis Island is "an intellect which has not been stunted by centuries of privation and an industry that falters at no task, however poorly paid." They come largely from Russia, where for centuries all manner of restrictions have been heaped up against them. Everything they wear or have is taxed. By the state they are treated as outcasts. When they come to this country they are ignorant, unable to read or write any language, without professions or skilled trades, and inevitably with a suspicious hatred of governmental authority. In spite of all these drawbacks, however, the Russian Jew never fails to advance in every direction.

His economic improvement is paralleled by that of no other immigrating race. In accumulating wealth, in liberating himself from ignorance and poverty, the Irishman, the Italian, the German, even the German Jew, cuts a poor figure beside the Russian and Pole. We hear constantly of the Ghetto's poverty; we seldom hear of its wealth. And yet no section of New York generates so many rich men. New York's greatest business and residential sections are filled with Russian Hebrews who started among the tenements 10, 15, 20, and 25 years ago. In the section from Sixtieth to Ninetieth street, and from Lexington to Park avenue,—one of New York's premier residential districts,—there are said to be 500 Russian and Polish Jews whose fortunes range anywhere from \$100,000 to \$1,000,000.

After citing by name the cases of a number of Jewish individuals acquiring wealth and property, Mr. Hendrick continues in his characterization of the Russian Jew in this country by saying:

In his activities here the Russian Jew evinces two marked characteristics. He is a remorseless pace-maker. He allows himself no rest nor recreation, and works all hours of the day and night. He saves every penny, will constantly deny himself and his family nutritious food, and until he has made his mark will live in the most loathsome surroundings. Whether a child in the primary schools, the bent stitcher in the sweat-shops, the manufacturer, the merchant, the professional man: constant industry, the determination to succeed,—that is his only law.

The Russian Jew is an individualist, and he has entered principally into those occupations where he can be his own boss most easily and for the greatest length of time.



From McClure's Magazine.

A JEWISH MOTHER OF NEW YORK.

This has made him supreme in the clothing trades, the largest industry of New York. In these trades he has supplanted the Irish and the Germans and is now bringing to do the most menial and lowest paid work thousands of Italians.

The Jew has quickly utilized an alien population living on a lower economic plane than himself. In the control of the business he has forced to the wall not only the German, the Irishman, the native-born, but the German Jew. Recently one of the largest cloak manufacturers in the country, a German Jew, failed; he had succumbed to the competition of the Russian Jews. The prevalence of Jewish names on Broadway has already been noted; but the important fact is that German names every day give way to Russian. Ten years ago the signs were all Oppenheimers, Rothschilds, Adlers, and Rosenthals; now the Rabinovitzes, Horowitzes, Welinskys, and Finkelsteins are increasing constantly.

In the growth of this industry, says Mr. Hendrick, the Russian Jew has brought about the reconstruction of great areas of New York. Before he came, much of the lower section of the city south of Fourteenth street and west of Broadway was a disreputable section. To-day, block after block of houses of evil repute have been torn down and in their places the Jews have erected huge clothing factories. The former homes of Knickerbocker aristocracy on Fifth avenue

have been replaced by skyscraper office buildings, tenanted by Russian Jewish merchants who, 25 years ago, were ragged and penniless immigrants.

In real estate, also, the Russian Jew has made remarkable progress. Real estate is with him an almost exclusive form of investment. He could own no land in Russia, but here "the East Side is possessed with an unending earth hunger." Wherever you see a Russian Jew, "however insignificant his station, you see a prospective landlord." Starting in the smallest way as a lessee of property, by constant saving and drudgery he soon comes to own very valuable buildings and grounds. In the final analysis, therefore, the Russian Jew is a very important factor in determining the physical growth of New York. He decides where the people are to live and the form their house is to take. He does this, not only because he controls the land, but because he now also controls the building business. He is contractor, but he is also workman.

Of the material prosperity of the Russian Jew there can be no question, says this writer.

He will never crowd our almshouses nor be a serious drain upon private charity. But is he assimilable? Has he in himself the stuff of which Americans are made? One point in his favor must be set down at once: His enthusiasm for America knows no bounds. He eagerly looks forward to the time when he can be naturalized. An alien Jew legally entitled to citizenship is a rarity. He has no allegiance to forswear; and he cannot return to Russia. The rapidity with which the New York Jew adopts the manners and trappings of Americans almost disproves his ancient heritage as a peculiar people. He objects to being regarded as a thing apart, and goes to extremes to make himself like the native-born. Everything that typifies the Russian he seeks to shake off. Thus he has

a mania for changing his name. The Russian -skis and -vitches are liberally dropped. Livinsky becomes Levin; Grafinsky, Graf; Kudinsky, Kudin; Michaelowitz, Michaels. Ingeniously the Russian or Polish is transformed into good old Anglo-Saxon. Stepinsky becomes Stevens; Shidlowsky, Sheldon; Willinsky, Wilson. Davidowitz readily translates into Davison or Davidson, Jacobson into Jackson. Russian and Polish Jews commonly have German names, precisely as they speak, not Russian,—which only the educated know,—but a German dialect. These are readily translated or transformed into English. Weiss becomes White, Preiss, Price, and Reiss, Rice. A certain Mr. Jaim Kele, after a few months' residence, blossomed out as Hugh Kelly. They also abandoned their surnames with no pretense of translating. In the Jewish quarters you will meet hundreds of Smiths, Robinsons, Browns, Johnsons, Taylors, and Greens.

The Jews, however, do not only change their names when they come here; they change their homes and their manner of living. They do not lower the standard of living, as has been charged. "They do not constantly draw the rest of the population down to their level; they constantly seek to raise their own."

Politically, says this writer in conclusion, the strong individualism of the Jew is his saving grace. It prevents him from organizing in a mass. There is no such thing as the "Jewish vote," in the sense that there is an Irish vote and a German vote.

The Hebrews of New York are not controlled as a unit by political leaders. They vote for one party at one election, for another at the succeeding. Better than any other element, even the native stock, do they meet the two supreme tests of citizenship: They actually go to the polls, and when once there, vote independently. . . . The Jewish people fulfil the obligations of citizenship,—the actual voting,—more regularly even than the native-born. And the statistics also show that they vote with discrimination.

THE "CHAOS OF PACIFICATION" IN RUSSIA.

FROM the chronicle of events in the weekly law journal *Pravo*, of St. Petersburg, which is permitted to publish only accurate, well attested information, we cite a few paragraphs to show the impossible state of affairs throughout the empire.

For supporting and assisting in the dissemination of the Viborg manifesto: Petrunkevich and Kedrin, members of the first Duma, prosecuted by the police and ordered forever debarred from City Hall sessions; for the same offense, Prince Shakhovski and members of the Duma Nekrosov and Skulski, debarred from taking part in electoral assemblies; Moroumtsev and

Kommisarov, Duma members from Moscow, expelled from the zemstvo by order of the police; Krukov (clergyman) and Afanasyev (lawyer), Duma members from the Don territory, forever debarred from official service; Chakste, Duma member from Courland, unseated from the Mitau assembly for signing the Viborg manifesto; Onipko, peasant member of the Duma, imprisoned at Kronstadt some months ago, dangerously ill, "not being able to eat the rotten prison food."

Members of zemstvos and other provincial assemblies expelled and disqualified from further government service: Safonov and Frankel, of Kostroma; Tverdi, of Mohilev; Bramson, Lopas, and Kubelis, of Kovno; Kharlanov (forever

prohibited from teaching) and Radakov, of Lugansk; and Prof. D. D. Grimm,—the last named being offered the alternative of keeping forever out of politics or leaving his chair at the military law academy.

The secretary of the Nikolaiev Railroad dismissed for refusing to forward "Black Hundred" proclamations calling on the populace to massacre the Jews and the "Intellectuals."

The school teachers' association of Kasan closed by the government.

All the schools, hospitals, and veterinary stations in the province of Borsna closed on account of arrears in taxes.

All the policemen of St. Petersburg of the grade of roundsman or under are to be drilled in rifle practice.

Major-General Lichitski ordered from headquarters to express "hearty thanks and 10 rubles reward" to Private Liskin, of the Seminovski regiment, for shooting with a rifle Miss Seminova, a political prisoner, because she disobeyed her guard's order and received a note from the outside.

The Odessa superintendent of elementary schools "humbly petitions" the district curator of schools to safeguard his pupils from "the demoralizing influence of the reactionary 'Union of Russian People.'"

The blacksmith convicts in the reformatory of the Lithuanian citadel of St. Petersburg have refused to forge hand fetters, on the plea that they "are thus compelled to forge with their own hands fetters for themselves and their brothers, prospective convicts."

In the chronicle of the *Pravo* for one week, ending October 6, we find the following items, among many others:



THE MUZHIK TO THE CZAR.

THE STRIKERS: "Little Father, give us some honey on our bread."

NICHOLAS: "Some honey! Wait awhile. Perhaps you would like to have a few plums as well."

From the *Grelot* (Paris).



VOTING FOR THE DUMA—A GERMAN VIEW.

(The electoral campaign for the Duma has been kept a secret. The officials have understood how to prevent intimidation.)

From *Lustige Blätter* (Berlin).

September 29.—Seventeen socialist revolutionaries arrested at Kovno.

September 30.—Ten men deported to the Archangel Prison for five years, and five to the Olonetsk Prison for two years, for anti-governmental agitation.

Three pupils of the Khotin city school arrested for distributing copies of the Viborg manifesto.

Brookov, assistant prosecuting attorney in St. Petersburg, releases 15 men who had been confined in prison "for purposes of enforced security."

Three priests deported from Shusha because bombs were found in their churches.

October 1.—One hundred and fifty workmen arrested for "purposes of security" during the trial of the members of the labor council.

Sixty persons,— "social revolutionaries" of Tula, including the editor of the *Tula News*,—arrested.

A teacher in the province of Yaroslavl is arrested for inciting peasants to refuse to supply horses for military purposes.

Peasants in the Kostroma district boycott some of their number for not taking part in raids on landlords' estates.

Twelve persons arrested in Kherson for having Social-Democratic publications in their possession.

October 2.—One hundred trades unionists, presidents and executive members, arrested in Odessa for anti-governmental agitation.

In the town of Yaroslav a number of rural guards attack a group of workmen for singing the "Marseillaise." One workingman and his wife are killed and one workingman wounded.

October 3.—Three new large batches of "politicals" are transported from St. Petersburg to the province of Archangel.

In Łódź all the workmen of Keller's factory, as well as the residences of five prominent public men, are arbitrarily searched by the police, without any reason being given.

A mob of peasants, armed with clubs and stones, attack the rural guards at Shirovtzi; two peasants are fatally wounded.

Agrarian riots, necessitating the presence of large bodies of troops, break out in different portions of Samara and Saratov.

The crops and buildings of Storozhenko, a large landed proprietor in the province of Poltava, are burned by peasants.—"Fifty Cossacks are needed."

The peasants of the Tver province positively refuse to pay any taxes whatsoever, and the tax

collector flees for his life; the peasants of the Novotcherkask province and the Czarskoye-Selo district of St. Petersburg refuse to pay arrears in taxes.

Eighteen rural guards are killed and five wounded by peasants in the province of Nizhni-Novgorod.

In Warsaw five secret-service men are killed by unknown persons who also seriously wound two women and a boy.

A shipment of rifles and 74,000 cartridges are seized by the customs officials at Graevo; 14 chests of rifles are stolen from a government freight train at Vladimir; bombs, firearms, and secret printing establishments are seized at Tomsk and Astrakhan.

October 4.—Soldiers and constables at Warsaw are fired on by unknown persons and six possibly fatally wounded. In a pitched battle between peasants and rural guards at a fire in Buinsk 10 persons are killed and 18 wounded.

October 6.—The printing house of *Labor and Need*, in St. Petersburg, is searched by order of "the security section of the police;" nothing is found, but the damage to the firm's property is more than 1000 rubles (\$500).

SIBERIA AND THE AMERICAN SYNDICATE.

THE current news from Russia, as reported to us by the Associated Press dispatches, concerns very largely the Terrorist activity and the attempts of the Stolypin government to hold it in check. These political events tend to obscure other happenings scarcely less important of which but scant information is given us. The continental European press, particularly that of France and Germany, is more generous to its readers and conveys the information that is overlooked by our news service.

The reactionary journals of Russia criticised, with varying severity, the attitude of the United States and the American people during the empire's war with Japan, even accusing us of unfriendly sentiments and of ingratitude for past favors. We have been even accused of giving moral and, perhaps, financial aid to the revolutionary Russian groups and to the enemies of the existing order. The more liberal publications, however, have interpreted our attitude rather differently. They recognize the distinction made by us between the Russian Government and the Russian people, and would appear to appreciate our desire to see the triumph of progress and internal peace. They realize that our condemnation of reactionary, despotic methods in Russia has not been prompted by unfriendly sentiments, but that it was rather the expression of a solicitude for the

national welfare of a nation which we have always regarded as a friend.

It is, therefore, with considerable surprise that we find in recent issues of a number of liberal Russian periodicals attacks on Americans who would invest money in Russian enterprises. A case in point is the article in the liberal daily *Tovarishch (Companion)*, published by the well-known economist, P. Khodski, on the projected railroad across the Bering Strait, connecting American railroads with the trans-Siberian system. This enterprise, it will be remembered, was described to our readers by Mr. Herman-Rosenthal in an article in the REVIEW for May, 1906. The writer in the *Tovarishch* treats the subject sarcastically and severely. Referring to the initiator of the project, Baron Loique de Lobelev, he says:

What is the secret of Mr. de Lobelev's solicitude for our Russian fatherland? To begin with, he is apparently desirous of presenting us with a railroad worth 500,000,000 rubles and is ready to pay instantaneously to the government a considerable portion of this sum in hard cash. We admit that it would be very convenient to receive these millions. We need them just now. Particularly attractive is this proposition from the fact that the money is not offered us as a loan, but is practically a free gift. The essence of Mr. de Lobelev's plan is, in brief, this: He undertakes to build, at his own expense, without any monetary guaranty on the part of the Russian Government, a modern railroad from one of the stations on the Siberian line to the Bering

Strait, to construct a tunnel under the Strait, and to continue the line on the American side until a junction is effected with the American railroad systems. This would enable a Parisian to travel in the same coach from Paris to New York, without any of the unpleasantness and fatigues of an ocean voyage. To be sure, a railroad running through the tundras for nearly 5000 versts (approximately 3300 miles) in the Arctic Zone would cost very great sums of money, and the tunnel would likewise involve enormous expenditures. But to Mr. Loique de Lobele nothing is too precious for Russia. He merely asks our government for a single boon: to grant him for 90 years a strip of territory 8 miles wide on either side of the tracks, with the right to exploit this territory at the surface or under it. This, of course, is a mere bagatelle. Mr. de Lobele was not at first appreciated fully in St. Petersburg society. It was not believed that he was in earnest. It soon became evident, however, that, while he actually has no money of his own, he is the representative of a very solid syndicate of American millionaires, who would not find it at all difficult to advance to our troubled government two or three hundred million rubles. And yet, what justification can there be for an American syndicate to throw away half a billion rubles for the sake of an undertaking that is, on the face of it, absurd? Who will travel over this road? What freight can it carry? How can it compete with the much cheaper transportation by water?

Despite all this, the writer in the *Tovarishch* says, Mr. de Lobele is correct in his views, and the Russian skeptics are wrong. This railroad enterprise, if carried through, promises enormous, almost inexhaustible profit to the American syndicate,—not from the freight transported, but from the "economic and perhaps also the political conquest of Russia's northeastern possessions."

In 1867 the Americans secured from us all of Alaska for \$7,200,000. At present Alaska's production of gold alone amounts to several hundred millions of rubles annually. This "deal" has prompted the Yankees to attempt others. Kamchatka, which is in the neighborhood of Alaska, is, according to some explorers, also rich in mineral resources. It is not impossible that American promoters may have even more accurate information about this province than we have ourselves. Their eyes, at any rate, are directed toward this region. This fact has been



THE UNRULY NEIGHBOR.

(When Russia and America are trying to peacefully exploit Siberia, why should Japan make such a racket?—The Russian words above the door mean America and Russia.)—From *Strekoza* (St. Petersburg).

proved by Mr. de Lobele's refusal to run his projected railroad through any other section of our Pacific domain. He finally consented, however, that the work on the road should be carried forward from both ends at once. Who, however, will guarantee to see that the American constructors, having built just so many miles from one end as will permit their exploitation of the region, will not then leave it to us to finish this greatest highway of the world, over which English gentlemen will in future travel on hunting trips after Polar bears, and over which the Russian Government is to transport the partisans of parliamentarism? The concession practically accords the right to Mr. de Lobele,—that is, to the American syndicate,—to exploit the entire territory contiguous to the road. Only the other day it was rumored that the government intended to mortgage the state-owned railroads. Is it possible that we are to be compelled to witness the shameful spectacle of our government borrowing, first on its income, then on its real property, and finally, perhaps, turning over its territory as security to foreign bankers who will come and rule over us?

Even this, says the writer of the *REVIEW* article already referred to, may happen, and sooner than perhaps is anticipated by the Russian periodical just quoted, if the Cadets (Constitutional Democrats) cannot bring to the front able leaders to overthrow the autocratic régime of the Romanovs. St. Petersburg is full of Lobeles, big and little, who are trafficking in railroad concessions, timber and fishing rights, and government mines. Money must be secured at any cost, and the government will get it, even though it may become necessary to "sell Russia in small portions."

CONSTITUTIONAL GOVERNMENT IN CHINA.

ON the first of September last the Chinese Government issued a monumental proclamation promising the adoption of a constitutional form of government. The most remarkable step ever taken by all the Chinese dynasties, it naturally called forth many divergent criticisms throughout the world. Count Okuma, leader of the Progressive party in Japan, contributed to a recent issue of the *Taiyo* (Tokio) an article on this question, contradicting the views of those skeptical observers who see in this progressive movement in China nothing but gloomy prospects. At the outset, the Count declares that he has never lost hope, even in the blackest of hours in China, for the ultimate resuscitation of that empire. He points out with some pride that, when the powers were vying with one another to establish

footholds in China as a step toward the break-up of that vast dominion, it was he who, then Foreign Minister of Japan, predicted that such a movement would soon be abandoned. According to this Japanese statesman, the inauguration of a constitutional government is the natural and inevitable outcome of many reforms lately announced by the Empress Dowager.

Of such reforms, by far the most significant is the abolition of "civil service" examination. With this hoary institution removed, the abortive study of *belles lettres* and the canonical books of ancient sages must likewise give way to the more useful study of modern science. The far-reaching effect of this departure is already visible. Tens of thousands of students are going abroad for modern education, schools and colleges after advanced principles have been established throughout the 18 provinces, Japan-



THE MANDARIN AND WESTERN LEARNING.

(This cartoon is reproduced from the Chinese journal, the *Peking Pictorial*. Following is a literal translation of the caption which appears on the picture: "The governor of Kan Suh is so afraid that modern learning in China will mean his downfall that he has recently made an effort to exterminate it by burning all western text books. This will have the opposite effect from the one he desires, and is contrary to the will of the throne.")



A CHINESE GENTLEMAN BEFORE AND AFTER STUDYING IN ENGLAND.

ese and Western text-books have been translated into Chinese to be used in these new educational institutions, and the entire country bristles with new spirit and ideas.

These students, "baptized by the cloven tongues of modern thought," have keenly awakened to the backward condition of their administrative system and are clamoring for the adoption of an advanced form of government. When such students are increasing by tens of thousands month after month, herald-



A CHINESE BELLE, OF PEKING—AND LONDON.

ing among the masses of the people the gospel of modernism, a sagacious ruler like the Empress Dowager cannot fail to foresee disastrous effects which will surely overtake the empire should the government cling to the old administrative system.

Another potent factor which influenced the Peking court to decide upon inaugurating a constitutional government, Count Okuma believes, is the impecunious condition of the central treasury. Through her diplomatic blunders China has for the past several decades been forced by foreign powers to pay exceedingly heavy indemnities, and the central government is groaning under financial



THE CHINESE SOLDIER OF YESTERDAY AND TO-DAY.

strain. The customs revenue has been surrendered to foreign control as the guarantee for the payment of such indemnities, and there is no possibility for floating loans either at home or abroad. The only means with which to rescue the government from the financial deadlock would be to increase taxes, which could be done without difficulty if only the people be made to believe that their government is not that of a few royal personages and high officials, but that of their own. In the opinion of Count Okuma, it is not difficult to raise ten times the existing tax, for, contrary to common belief, the Chinese people are not at present taxed heavily. The inauguration of a constitution is, therefore, of the utmost necessity to allay the financial strain of the central government.

In order to realize this political reformation, Count Okuma believes it imperative to take back to the central government all the authority which has hitherto been vested with the viceregal governments. In his opinion, administrative centralization is a preliminary step toward the adoption of a constitution.

Such a step could be taken, says the Count, without causing discontent among the viceroys and other local functionaries of importance, if the Peking court organizes an advisory board akin to the Japanese Privy Council, to be composed of former local officials of high rank.

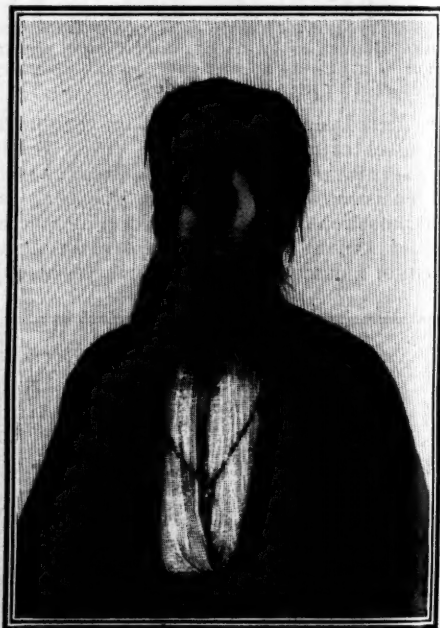
THE HISTORY AND RELIGION OF THE SAMARITANS.

THE news that Jacob, son of Aaron, high priest of the Samaritans, had arrived in London, bearing with him some rare ancient scrolls which he purposes offering for sale to the British Museum, has recalled the attention of scholars and religious historians to the very interesting, but little known, story of this ancient people, the Samaritans. In a recent number of the *Bibliotheca Sacra* is given the history and religion of the Samaritans, edited from High Priest Jacob's own story, with an introduction by Dr. William Eleazar Barton. In the introductory note Dr. Barton says that this holy man, whose seat of office is at Nâblus, in Palestine, the ancient biblical Shechem, is now 73 years of age and has been high priest for 58 years. Dr. Barton learned of the book written by the high priest from that functionary himself, who said in a letter that he had prepared it at the request of an eminent Oxford scholar. In the introduction to the book he declares he counts it as his misfortune that the Samaritans are known to the Christians only through their mutual enemies, the Jews. Therefore, since his own feeling toward the Christian world is a kindly one, he has determined to make known the true story of the separation of the Samaritans from the Jews. The manuscript is in Arabic, with Scripture passages quoted in Samaritan text and in the Hebrew language. Says Dr. Barton:

The Jews date the origin of the Samaritans as a people from the importation of foreigners into Northern Syria after the conquest by Sargon in 722 B. C., and the rise of their religion from the time when Manasseh, a young priest who had married a daughter of Sanballat, the Samaritan governor, refused to leave his wife at the command of Nehemiah in 432 B. C. It cannot fail to be noted with interest that the high priest rests his case on no defense of Manasseh, however oppressive the decree of Nehemiah might have been made to appear. According to his argument, which is the historic argument of his sect, the Samaritans are the original Hebrews, descendants of Joseph, except their

priests, who are of the tribe of Levi. According to their tradition, it is the Jews who have gone aside, both by intermarriage with other nations, which the Samaritans still shun, and also by secession from the capital and sanctuary established by Joshua and steadfastly maintained by the faithful Samaritans to this day, and by departure from the Torah, which the Jews are alleged to have corrupted and added to.

The *Bibliotheca Sacra* gives a translation of the first chapter of the book, by Prof. Ab-



JACOB, SON OF AARON, HIGH-PRIEST OF THE SAMARITANS.

dullah ben Kori (of Pacific University, Oregon). This chapter, of course, is the most interesting to the general reader, since it is the one which contains the history of the Samaritan people and information concerning the cause of this people's separation from the

Jews, the later chapters dealing almost exclusively with rites and ceremonies.

Some useful information regarding the Samaritans, from the standpoint of purely secular history, is furnished by the Jerusalem correspondent of the London *Graphic*:

This once powerful Samaritan people had, about a century ago, dwindled away until they numbered but a few thousand, living in scattered communities in Syria and Egypt. Now their sole representatives are the hundred souls which compose the Nâblus community. Their numbers still are decreasing, and they are likely to become extinct at no distant day, as they do not marry outside their own circle, and the number of possible wives and mothers is exceedingly small. It is peculiar to that region of Palestine that, in every nationality, the males outnumber the females. The Samaritans are very poor, their most valuable possessions being some ancient scrolls, one of which is the celebrated Samaritan Pentateuch, which, they claim, was written by the grandson of Aaron, and bears his name. They guard it with jealous care, and seldom permit it to be seen. If travelers are persistent in their requests to look upon this monument of antiquity, they are generally shown another scroll.

In the closing paragraphs of the chapter of the book, as translated in the *Bibliotheca Sacra* article already referred to, the story

of the gradual diminishing in numbers of the Samaritans is told, with especially attention to detail, during the years of Mohammedan supremacy. There were many Samaritans, says the record, scattered throughout Palestine, many in Damascus, Egypt, and in Syria. Later, however, "through the aggressive power of Islam, and because there was none to direct them, the things which God threatened in his holy law took place."

As it was prophesied, they became very few, and the famous cities shall none of them stand, according to his holy Torah in the book of Deuteronomy, twenty-eighth chapter, sixty-second verse; that is, "Ye shall be few in number," and "All shall perish from the land which you shall long to possess." There are many threatenings similar to this which indicate this present condition which came upon this nation, and that is only in order that they may suffer for their guilt and for the guilt of their forefathers, according to His saying (may He be extolled) in the book of Leviticus, twenty-sixth chapter, forty-first verse; that is, "And they shall be made to atone for their guilt." . . . Unto all time, however, this nation will carry out the ancient customs according to the Mosaic law as well as they can, and have always offered the proper prayers to the God of all creation, that he might keep them from all harm, misfortune, and all violence.

INDUSTRIAL ORGANIZATION INDIA'S ONLY HOPE.

FOR a thousand years India has been the land of colossal real and legendary wealth,—it has been the prize for which the world's greatest powers have successively struggled. But within the last century a radical change has occurred. Western nations to-day rate India with Persia, Turkey, even China, and this in spite of the fact that a progressive western people is administering the country's destinies. The situation may well puzzle the economist and sociologist, especially as modern India is immensely wealthy and no doubt represents the heart of the British Empire. "Why then should India vegetate?" asks Herr Woldemar Schutze, writing in the *Gegenwart* (Berlin). The answer of this German writer is novel from more than one point of view.

Unlike the mass of foreign critics and unlike also the spokesman of the British political parties, Herr Schutze does not find that the answer to the problem lies either in the department of taxation or in that of an alien government, with the burdens entailed by such a government. Indeed "the essential question is not whether the slice of Indian

pie which the British cut is larger or smaller, but why the national income of the country is not larger? In other words, the problem is, Why does the industrial force of India result in the production of so much less national wealth than the same force would produce in Europe?"

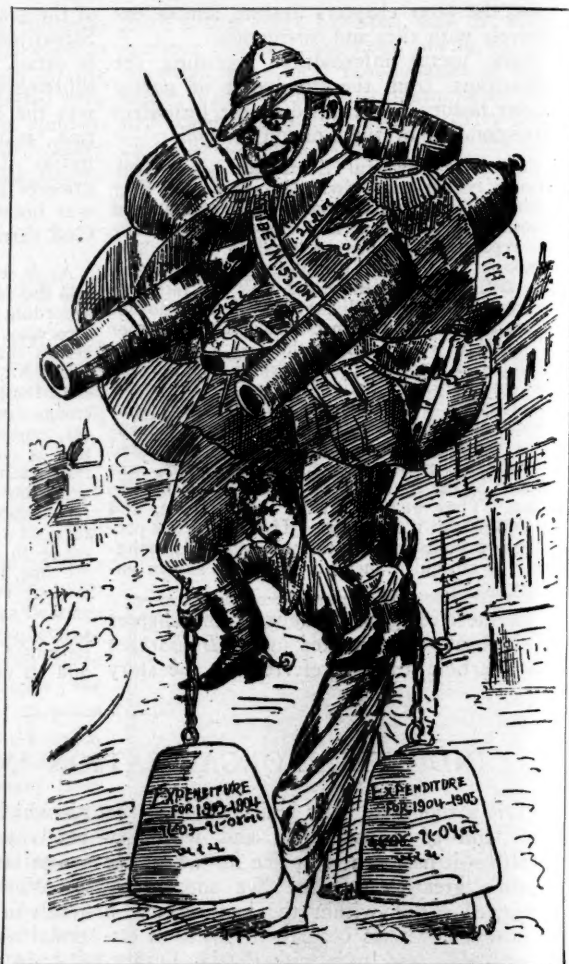
The German critic considers that this question is necessarily related to more than one side of Indian economic life, but he thinks that the main point is "the Indian commercial and industrial organization." And the view defended by Herr Schutze is worthy of note, because it runs counter to the convictions of many persons who are persuaded that the factory and the machine have made for a cheapening and deterioration of the product and the worker, and who believe that the era of the hand worker was the time of true individual wealth as well as of perfect methods and results. It is doubtless true that the factory and the modern commercial régime have their dark side, but it would seem that there is also a bright side, and so bright indeed does the German writer find this other side that he considers Indian pov-

erty and Indian economic starvation to be directly due to the exclusively individual labor organization of the country and to the complete lack of co-ordination which is the direct consequence of this organization.

In the words of Herr Schutze, "the European workman is usually a wage earner who labors under the guidance of an employer; in India the workman generally engages for his own account; he assumes the risk of production, and receives in addition to his wage the gain, or perhaps the loss, which results from the undertaking. It is true that this scheme of organization is in no sense exclusively Indian,—among others it is the characteristic of agricultural conditions in all countries where the land is worked in small parcels. The Irish tenant, the small farmer of Germany and France, the farmer in west Canada are merely workmen who take the risk of production on their own shoulders in exactly the same way as the Indian ryot. But in the Western Hemisphere this form of industrial organization is limited to agricultural pursuits, while in India it is the characteristic of all labor. The blacksmith, the carpenter, the potter, the cotton carder, the hand worker are all individuals who work for their own account, although it cannot be said that they resemble either the skilled workman of Europe or the employer who never does any actual manual labor himself. They really belong to a category of people who are rapidly disappearing from western Europe, and of whom the cobbler and the kettle mender of small provinces are practically the only living European representatives."

The problem of whether the individual worker or the factory hand is more fortunate does not enter into the German writer's calculations.

For whether the independent kettle-mender is happier than the man who receives his wage from an employer is an entirely different ques-



FOUR INDIA AND HER BURDENS.
From *Hindi Punch* (Calcutta).

tion. The sole point under consideration is whether the Indian or the European scheme makes for the greatest national wealth. And in developing this discussion it is clear that the production of wealth will probably be greater where, as in Europe, the control of an industry is in the hands of a man who is particularly fitted for his post both by education and natural ability. In Europe and America the ideal business man is an individual who is intimately acquainted with all branches of his profession and who is constantly in touch with the developments of his particular line, one who selects his men so that each workman will be given work he is best qualified to do, who studies the market demand for his goods, and so forth. And it is clear that when business is conducted in this way it will probably produce a more perfectly developed organization than when it is controlled by an uneducated workman who has

mere dexterity of hand at his command. In India the control of trade is in the hands of people who have no opportunity to study new methods of production, no way of seeing new mechanical tools, no possibility of studying market fluctuations, and who, because of their very independence, cannot be given the work for which they are best qualified.

Herr Schutze, however, finds nothing abnormal in the industrial organization of India,—it is simply a social body which has not yet passed through the era of capitalization. India in fact has still before it the

period of industrial revolution, but there are many indications that the old order is rapidly passing away.

The cotton mills of Bombay, the jute mills of Bengal, the factories of Cawnpore are the forerunners of a new industrial organization, and the success of the British pioneers has moved a number of Indian capitalists to follow the example of their alien governors. Now we find flour mills, cotton mills, soap factories, and even steel works under Indian administration and fed with Indian capital, and the success of the new undertakings is proof of the beneficial effect of capitalistic organization on trade.

THE INTERURBAN ELECTRIC RAILROAD.

WHAT the Appian Way and similar roads were to Roman strength and pre-eminence the steam and electric highways are to modern life and industry. Though the electric car is yet in its infancy, not "old enough to vote," its economic and social effect has been enormous. How the interurban electric railroad traffic has developed in the single State of Ohio has been made the theme of an interesting and valuable article in the *Journal of Political Economy* (University of Chicago), for December, by Dr. Ernest L. Bogart, of Princeton University.

When the year 1889 came to a close there were only three electric roads in the country opened for traffic. To-day it is possible to go almost the entire distance from Boston to Detroit by trolley. Chicago, Indianapolis, Cincinnati, and Columbus are centers of numerous interurban electric lines; and St. Louis, Omaha, and the Twin Cities are close rivals. In Ohio the system is particularly well developed. As early as 1896 there were 69 chartered companies, and in 1902 the electric railroad mileage was 2470, or one-fifth the mileage of the steam roads; and of all the electric roads in the State 54 per cent. were extraurban. Within the last three years 200 companies have been incorporated, involving capital in the hundreds of millions.

In many of the cities union interurban stations are conveniently located near the shopping district. The station building at Cincinnati is six stories high, and has every convenience a traveling public could ask for. Similar stations are found at Toledo, Columbus, and elsewhere, and all passenger cars stand inside until the time of departure. The service generally throughout the State is being improved. More and more are the roads buying their own right-of-way, and higher

rates of speed and more level track are thus secured. The problem of entrance into a city is generally solved by securing the use of the tracks of the city roads where the interurban does not have tracks of its own. Between Cleveland and Toledo the limited trains have a running time of four and a half hours; the local cars make the trip in six hours.

Important among the effects of the introduction of the electric interurban lines has been the cheapening of travel. The average passenger fare per mile on the electric interurban is less than 1½ cents. It is true that State law has now fixed the maximum legal rate for all steam railroads at 2 cents a mile, yet "the round-trip fares remain much the same, as the roads have very generally refused to issue return tickets at a reduced rate." Commutation and mileage books are issued which are good over as many as a dozen lines, and on the Western Ohio line is issued what is known as the "Lima Trading Ticket." Persons wishing to go to Lima to shop purchase the usual ticket for that purpose. When a purchase is made in any Lima store whose name appears on the ticket the amount of the purchase is stamped on the ticket. And if all the purchases amount to from \$5 to \$25 (according to the distance from Lima), upon presentation of this ticket to the station agent the full amount of the fare paid for the ticket is refunded. In the last seven years the number of steam-railroad passengers has fallen off by twelve millions, not because there is less traveling, but because the competing trolley has stolen the traffic.

There is little traveling now in Ohio by steam between points where the electric lines pass. This preference for the trolley for short-distance travel is due to several causes: (1) Most of the

railroad stations are not in the center but on the edge of the towns, and are thus less conveniently situated than the electric lines, especially in stormy weather. (2) It costs less to go by the electric line. (3) It is very much more convenient, owing to the greater frequency of the service. Trolleys usually run every hour, while steam trains run only three or four times a day. (4) The frequency of stops makes it possible for many to use the electric who could not use the steam lines.

According to "Poor's Manual" for 1902, the average length of trip per passenger on the steam railroads for the States of Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, Michigan, and Wisconsin was, in 1900, 33.80 miles; in 1901, it was 39.73 miles. Much, if not all, of this was due to the short-haul traffic of the electric lines. The number of local passengers carried between Cleveland and Oberlin and intermediate points on one line of steam railroad fell in seven years from 203,014 to 91,761. On another road, between Cleveland and Lorain, during the same length of time, it fell from 42,526 to 9795. In many instances the steam roads have discontinued largely, if not entirely, their local passenger service. Yet not all of the electric interurban business has been stolen from the steam roads, for it has been shown that much new traffic has been called into existence by the building of the electric line. Between two towns where the steam road did a business of \$2000 a month, the electric railroad is now doing three times that amount, yet the railroad seems to be handling the same volume of business as before.

The attitude of the steam roads toward this new competitor has been variable. Many of the steam-railroad men think the loss of business cannot be overcome by lowering their fares. A car can be run as cheaply every half-hour as a train of six cars every three hours. Around Cleveland and Columbus especially have the steam roads attempted to compete with the electric interurbans by reducing fares, and the war is still on.

The freight and express business done by the interurban lines has been of more recent and gradual development. Receipts from this class of business in 1902 amounted to \$269,521. Only about one-tenth of the companies, so far as could be ascertained, have cars for exclusive freight or express use. Some of the roads, however, have done extensive business in handling car-lots of stone, sugar beets, live-stock, coal, coke, and grain; and the future may show enormous increase in this regard. Among electric roads in the

northern part of the State, we find duplicates of the arrangements which the Adams and other express companies have with the steam roads, except that the electric company furnishes the car free and receives from the express company a portion of the total gross receipts. But where the freight and express system has been introduced, it has proved a great boon to the farmer. Milk, butter, provisions, vegetables, and fruits, can be shipped to the heart of the big cities with the minimum of expense. The value of farms along the line of the electric has greatly increased, and, strange to say, this freight traffic has developed the out-bound volume of trade many fold above the in-bound trade.

What the ultimate effect will be upon the merchants in the smaller towns is still problematical. Bitter opposition to the introduction of the electric lines has been made in many small towns, yet, in some instances at least, it has stimulated and improved trade so that those who opposed the road are now its firmest advocates. The dry goods merchants have been most affected, but even here the gain from the surrounding rural districts has often compensated; and many of the country grocers have found it a distinct advantage because of the ease and quickness with which they could get fresh vegetables and supplies.

Another effect of the interurban electric line has been to give the country folk some of the advantages of the city. Theatres, concerts, lectures, and other forms of entertainment and instruction are within the farmer's reach. Social life generally has been stimulated because of the increased facilities for travel. County fairs, always well patronized, have taken on new life. Many of the lines own or manage pleasure resorts, and these are patronized by the weary toiler of the field as well as by the store clerk. The children, too, are enabled to avail themselves of the superior school facilities of the town; and many of the roads provide special cars and special rates for this class of patrons.

Dr. Bogart says that the financial showing of the roads is not what one would suspect from so great a volume of traffic. The average rate of interest on trolley stock is 4.7 per cent., which is less than that of the railroads. But because of their very popularity and because of their ability to compete so favorably with the steam roads, for these and similar reasons, the promoters of the lines have been able to deceive the public, and the roads are heavily burdened with watered stock.

THE TELEPHONE IN GREAT BRITAIN.

DISCUSSION of municipal and governmental ownership of public utilities is rife to-day, and that the demand for public control is not confined to our own country is evidenced by the struggle which for 30 years has been waged in Great Britain for the control of the telephone system. An interesting and exhaustive account of this movement is given by A. N. Holcomb in the November number of the *Quarterly Journal of Economics* (Harvard):

England had just completed its eighth year of the telegraph monopoly when the Bell telephone was introduced in that country, in 1878. The government not being willing to adopt it, it was at once taken up by private enterprise. Two companies were soon formed, the Edison and the Bell; and the latter proposed an alliance with the post-office under the terms of which the government would secure instruments at cost, "but the offer was refused by a skeptical Postmaster-General." As the new industry developed, however, the government found its telegraph monopoly threatened, and so at once brought action to crush its new rival, the United Telephone Company, the Bell and Edison having joined forces. Through a rather ingenious interpretation by the court, the description of the telegraph in the Telegraph act, under which the government conducted its monopoly, was declared to include the telephone. Private enterprise could go no further, nor could the government introduce the telephone without the consent of the owners of the patent.

This was in 1880. Mr. Fawcett was Postmaster-General, Mr. Gladstone's Liberal cabinet having lately been formed. The telegraph system had been purchased by the state at an enormous valuation, and a flat rate had been substituted for the graduated rate of the previous owners. Never had the profits been very large, and now the possibility of an actual deficit stared them in the face. The government then proceeded to grant licenses on terms which they believed would protect the telegraph revenues. The United and its subsidiary companies were authorized to operate exchange systems in London and provincial towns within a radius of two to five miles about a central point, and to pay a royalty of 10 per cent. of the gross receipts. Each license was to run 31 years from January 1, 1881, reserving to the Postmaster-General the right of purchase upon

due notice at a fair valuation in 1890 or thereafter at the end of seven-year periods. The United chose London for the field of its operations, and gave subsidiary companies permission to employ its instruments in the provincial towns.

The telephone business spread rapidly. In one year the profits of the telegraph monopoly decreased £120,000. In 1882 the government changed its policy: no new licenses were granted unless the companies entered into a contract to sell to them, on terms to be fixed by arbitration in default of agreement, as many telephones as they desired, and to be used for such purposes as they saw fit; the result of which was practically to prohibit the taking out of more licenses, it being the government's plan to encourage competition with the United Telephone Company. A new company, the London and Globe, was granted a license, but it was quickly restrained by the court for lack of patent rights, and in 1884 it was bought by the United Company.

The government then introduced what has been called "the policy of strangulation." Fifty per cent. of the receipts from all public call stations was demanded. Charges for the use of trunk lines,—that is, telephone lines connecting exchanges in different areas,—were made almost prohibitory. When the companies proposed to build their own trunk lines, bearing the expense themselves, in order to benefit their subscribers, they were actually required to charge their subscribers so much per extra mile for the use of trunk lines. The alleged motive for it all was the government's desire to prevent further deficit in the telegraph system.

UNIVERSAL COMPETITION SUCCEEDED BY A "TRUST."

Such restrictions naturally brought the telephone business almost to a standstill, till in 1884 the government decided to adopt a radically new plan, that of free and universal competition. All licenses were called in, and then reissued without restriction to local areas. This furnished service for subscribers outside of the local areas and enabled the companies to construct their own trunk lines. The duration of the licenses, condition of purchase by the state, and amount of royalties remained as before. A new provision, however, was made in regard to way-leaves,—that is, the right to run lines over proper-

ty, public or private; where the postoffice had acquired exclusive way-leaves for their telegraphs on railways and canals, the companies were to pay so much annually per mile for the right to use them. But the licensees of the Postmaster-General did not share in his statutory powers. The companies were badly hampered by "costly and wearisome higgling with the local officials and citizens over whose property they wished to pass."

Open complaint and dissatisfaction were now heard on every hand. To meet the growing deficit in the telegraph business the government tried reducing the toll, but the gain was only slight. The United admitted that their service was even poor, but claimed that lack of way-leave power was the cause of it. To the charge that their service was too expensive, they said the royalty explained that. All genuine competition was throttled. No independent company could get instruments without accepting the terms of the United. The government exchanges were few and not well patronized. A new avenue of escape, however, seemed near. In 1890 and '91 the patents would expire, and genuine and lively competition would then be expected. In anticipation of this, to better deal with the situation, the telephone magnates effected an amalgamation. A "trust" was formed, called the National Telephone Company.

GOVERNMENT CO-OPERATING WITH PRIVATE ENTERPRISE.

The government now proposed to abandon the plan of free and universal competition and adopt in its stead a plan of governmental co-operation with private enterprise. The telephone companies were to surrender their right to construct trunk lines and confine their future operations to local areas. In return for these concessions on the part of the companies, the way-leave privileges of the government were to be conferred upon the companies, subject, however, to the approval of local authorities. Royalties and other provisions of the existing licenses were to remain unchanged.

The merit of this plan from the government's standpoint was that a company was already organized to accept its terms and compete with the National. "If the government owned the trunk lines and converted them into metallic circuits, the obsolete single-wire system of the National Telephone Company would be nearly useless in

connection with them." And, too, the patents had expired; so that competitors stood a better chance. The government felt sure the National would surrender its trunk lines in order to get the statutory way-leave powers so essential to the improvement of its service.

The rival company had the Duke of Marlborough as one of its leaders. On August 11, 1892, when the chairmen of the New Telephone Company stepped forward to sign the new agreement, who should appear also but the chairmen of the National Telephone Company. The reason for this lay in the fact that the National and the New companies had secretly decided to co-operate rather than compete, "and before the end of the year it (the National) had gained complete control of its quondam rival." The National had, however, sold its trunk lines as agreed. It still could run wires to subscribers outside the local areas, but could establish no exchanges beyond those limits. The government agreed to construct underground conduits in the various city streets, and to reduce the fee for the use of the trunk lines, and the company was to connect its exchanges with the various postoffices. "Thus was established a novel partnership between the department and the company."

The impossibility of forcing private enterprise to compete in the telephone industry was at last reluctantly recognized by the government; it was also seen that the attempt to compete by means of cheapened and improved telegraph service had resulted only in failure. The deficits grew larger every year, though the service was excellent. Again the public began to clamor for a new solution of the problem. The rates were too high, they said, and complaint was general. Matters came to a head in a conference at London. The delegates voted unanimously that the service was inadequate, inefficient, and costly; and the government was asked either to introduce effective competition or buy out the "trust." It decided, however, to introduce municipal competition.

MUNICIPAL TELEPHONES.

Municipal authorities were empowered to construct exchanges and compete with the National, the royalties and other conditions being practically the same as before. Glasgow was the first to act, and was soon a keen competitor of the company, even outstripping it. "Yet a deputation ultimately was sent to the Postmaster-General to beg his

good offices in bringing about an understanding with the company." Tunbridge Wells was another municipality which constructed an exchange of its own, but "after operating its plant for a year, sold out to the company, which guaranteed a reduction in rates as well as the reimbursement of the corporation for all its capital sunk in the undertaking."

In London the Postmaster-General decided, however, to co-operate instead of competing with the National Telephone Company. . . . An agreement was made for providing for inter-communication between the two systems, joint rates, and purchase of the company's plant in 1911. . . . The government will buy all the plant that conforms to the standard of efficiency prescribed by the Postmaster-General at a price equal to its value *in situ* . . . but with no payment for good-will.

Throughout the country generally, however, it became necessary in 1905 to make some new arrangement with the National in order to keep up an efficient service.

The result was that in February the Postmaster-General made an agreement with the company, extending over its entire system the terms of regulation and purchase which were laid down for the London area by the agreement of November 18, 1901. . . . The former will receive in 1911 the equivalent of its capital investment; the latter, a going concern at cost price.

At last the telephone problem was solved. Once more the Postmaster-General has full control of that branch of his telegraph monopoly.

Only a year now has the state been "in a situation to bear the whole responsibility for the development of the telephone in the British Isles. It is still too early to render the ultimate verdict."

RAILROAD REPORTS AND THE NEW RATE LAW.

THAT reform in railroad reports is not a matter of mere "academic interest" is evidenced by the fact that there are to-day in the United States 400,000 railroad shareholders, with the number of bondholders probably two or three times as great. Indeed, the amount of capital is estimated at \$10,000,000,000. And that stockholders and prospective investors are entitled to an honest and "unjuggled" statement of the companies' assets and liabilities is evident to all. How great was the need for this, together with a detailed analysis of the law, is interestingly shown by Mr. Carl Snyder in a recent issue of *Moody's Magazine*.

In order to gather information on American railroads as investments it was recently the writer's task "to go through the reports of from 70 to 80 of the railroads of the country, whose operations cover more than nine-tenths of the total mileage of the continent. In this work he discovered that there was an utter lack of uniformity in keeping the accounts of the different companies, and it was impossible to estimate with even a fair degree of approximation what the actual condition of the companies was. The reports issued by the Great Northern Railway Company were the most glaringly deficient of all, the shareholders themselves being unable to learn what renewals or improvements were charged to current earnings and what to capital account.

Any shareholder of the company who tries to trace the additions to balance sheet resulting

from the expenditure of the \$25,000,000 stock sale, in September of 1905, will gain little for his labor. And the same thing is true of the half-baked income and traffic statistics.

Mr. Snyder holds that:

The information that is absolutely essential in the make-up of a fairly intelligible opinion as to what a given railroad's bonds or shares are really worth is, after all, simple in the extreme. The railroad business differs but little from that of any other business, and the same questions which a man will ask if he is buying a share in a grocery business, a newspaper, or a flour mill, are the questions which he may rightly ask of the managing officers of a railroad. In the last analysis the things he really wants to know may be reduced to three or four simple heads:

1. What does the company earn?
2. What dividends does it pay and what is the margin of safety for those dividends?
3. How well is the property being kept up, not merely with reference to its previous condition, but likewise as to the demands of its business?
4. How well is the property being managed?

An excellent summary of the new rate law then follows, in which the different items are considered and shown to be wholesome and salutary. The clause requiring a statement of the amount of stock issued and the manner in which payment of the same is made is "obviously aimed at over-capitalization and stock watering. It would doubtless imply a full statement of the operations by which a \$100 share of the Chicago, Rock Island & Pacific Railway stock was converted into \$100 of bonds, \$70 of preferred stock and \$100 of common stock, of a new company, or, rather, new companies."

The cost and value of the carrier's property, franchises, and equipments are also required. Too often have these estimates been "decidedly elastic, and more or less open to the discretion of the reporting company." To secure uniformity and accuracy in this regard the commission will doubtless have to lay down definite standards of valuation. But this the writer does not consider a difficult task. The commissioners have full power to prescribe the exact form in which the reports shall be made, and heavy penalties are attached for infraction.

The character of and amount expended for improvements each year must be stated. And here Mr. Snyder very aptly comments that the reports should indicate clearly what portion of the improvements have been made from earnings and what from the issue of new securities, together with a statement of the form of issue. To be of the most value, these reports should be made in tabular form, so that for each of, say, four years it would be easy to compare and check up the expenditures, and "thus determine whether the maintenance charges and the amounts so expended were sufficient or excessive."

The provisions of the new law have well been characterized as "sweeping," and with a commission absolutely empowered to prescribe any and all forms of accounting and demand any item of information, very plainly the question of complete publicity of railroad financial operations is "up to the commission." But beyond the information which is mandatory and specially provided for, Mr. Snyder emphasizes certain features which should characterize the reports if they are to answer the purpose intended:

1. They must be simple, free from unnecessary detail.

2. They should be uniform, for "it is the absence of uniformity which, more than anything else, makes analysis and comparison difficult. The outsider, the shareholder, cannot compute intricate matters of ton-mile cost and the like; but, if he has the figures before him, he can readily compare the cost of conducting transportation, the cost of maintenance of way and equipment, etc., on different roads of almost identically the same character of traffic. . . . Given uniformity, and two-thirds of the problem is solved."

The report of bond and stock capitalization should cover leased or rented lines, and the coal lands and other properties of such roads as the Reading and Lackawanna should also be stated, together with the income and

the amount of debt they bear. Likewise, the amount and annual charge of all the various guaranties and obligations should be shown in tabular form, so that "by comparing these with the average surplus income for several years he may compute just how heavy a slump in business the road could stand before his securities or his income would become imperiled."

A "STANDARD OF MAINTENANCE" DEMANDED.

Yet, more important than any of these, says Mr. Snyder, is the question of some *standard of maintenance*, "for it is evident that the amount of surplus earnings shown each year by a road is purely a question of how much it spends on the upkeep of its property." That a real difficulty, a real problem, exists here cannot be denied. There has been no uniformity here, and the commissioners may have some difficulty in establishing a precedent, yet, "it does not seem as though it would be utterly impossible to segregate the various items of maintenance charges, and prescribe what shall be included in maintenance and what in improvements, so that, to some extent at least, different roads in the same territory, with almost identically the same character of traffic, may be compared one with another."

If a road, like the Atchison, when turned over by the receivers to the new company, is in a very much run-down condition, it is obvious that it cannot be put in condition, unless by the expenditure of new capital or from earnings. It does not seem as though it would be difficult to state the different facts, so that, for example, one could understand why the Atchison, in 1906, should, after enormous expenditures in this direction, still be charging itself heavily for maintenance, while the Missouri Pacific or Great Northern can get along with very light charges.

It is obvious that the proportions of capital to earnings,—for example, the net capital to gross earnings or net earnings,—the proportion of fixed charges to total net income, the margin of safety on payment of interest and rentals charges, and similar items, all help to clarify the situation as to a given road, and as they are simple of computation they might reasonably be stated in every report, and given, furthermore, comparatively, say for a period of four years. Other items, will readily occur: traffic density, train load, etc., most of which are included in the average report but not in all reports.

The new rate law has now been in effect one month. The result will be watched with interest. The commissioners' task is far from easy. If they succeed, if they can produce simple, accurate, and intelligible reports, they will have accomplished a signal service.

HAVE THE GERMANS FAILED IN EAST AFRICA?

THE great German possession on the Indian Ocean,—twice the size of the German Empire,—offers a vast field for colonization. Various causes have conspired to retard its economic advancement thus far. These causes, and other points of interest concerning that territory, are set forth in an article by E. von Liebert in a recent issue of the *Deutsche Revue*. In the course of the article he writes:

According to our modern notions the economic development of the colony has been rather slow. In 1885 several districts of East Africa were placed under German protection. It was not until 1891, however, that their boundaries were determined and the whole region came under imperial jurisdiction.

But "what are 15 years for a purely primitive land, with no trace of culture?"

We must have patience in tackling so great a problem as the cultivation of tropical Africa. There have, besides, been special obstructions to rapid growth in East Africa: the political separation of Zanzibar, an island economically bound to the mainland; the heavy duties imposed upon the coast-towns; the burdensome administrative organization; the restricted investment of German private capital; the refusal of means for the building of railroads; and, finally, the saddling of the colony with a heavy military budget and with the annual repayment of 600,000 marks on a loan by the German East African Company. After such a mass of political blunders what has been achieved ought, it seems, to be regarded with satisfaction.

Proceeding to details, the writer says that when the colony became a German possession it was assumed that the new German coast would form the chief outlet for the exports of Central Africa, for the commercial highways from the three great seas ran into the German ports. The west coast was but little used for exporting, but the extirpation of the slave trade,—accomplished by the British and the Germans,—sapped the foundations of the traffic from the interior to the coast.

This traffic was based chiefly upon man-stealing; for the negroes, dragged together, carried the goods,—ivory, caoutchouc, skins, etc.,—upon their heads, and were then sold along with their burdens. With free carriers, to be paid and fed coming and returning, profit could be expected only from the most valuable commodities: ivory and caoutchouc. Thus instead of an increase there was, unfortunately, a sudden decrease of exports from the German coast, particularly as the Congo Free State strained every nerve to force the transport of goods to the west, and as, since 1902, the British Uganda Railway carried the commerce of the German hinterland to Mombasa. Zanzibar's different customs duties proved equally disastrous to the business of the German

coast-towns. With its convenient roadstead, its old firms, and the direct connection with Aden, Bombay, South Africa, and Madagascar, it is the natural site for lading and distribution. Furthermore, it is the market for gold and for labor of the whole east coast.

In the "creative joy that characterized the first decade of colonial activity" the laying out of plantations was at once started. Attempts were first made with tobacco and coffee, with the hope of rapid gain. But the cultivation of the former proved a disastrous failure, while that of the latter is also being abandoned, since the prices it commands in the markets of the world are low, owing apparently to over-production.

Fortunately, other products were meanwhile raised which are adapted to culture on a large scale and bear promise of an important future,—namely, sisal-hemp, caoutchouc, and cotton. The sisal agave was introduced from Mexico and thrives well in East African soil. The leaf furnishes the hemp, which has come to be in great demand in the world-markets. Its culture has proved profitable, and is consequently on the increase. In 1903 its export value amounted to 423,000 marks; in 1904, to 572,000 marks.

Caoutchouc has from the remotest time formed the chief export of the country.

The negro fastens the lianas with his knife, lets the liquid drip on to his fingers, then forms a ball of the sticky mass. But the lianas dry up, and with the constantly increasing demand for india-rubber, the forest wealth of this product is being destroyed. The idea of systematically raising the plant has therefore long been followed and with good success. The export of this commodity amounted to 2,000,000 marks in 1903 and to 2,225,000 in 1904, with the certain prospect of further increase.

There is a still greater future promise for the cultivation of cotton. Experts have ascertained that the soil and climatic conditions of East Africa are favorable for its culture. What is needed is trained laborers and railroads. Thus far the inhabitants have not gone beyond the stage of great attempts. The highest exports reached 200,000 marks, in 1905, but, in view of the great importance of this article in German economic life, these beginnings signify a great deal, particularly as steam plows are now being introduced, and this presages industry on a large scale.

If, then, the products which guarantee the colony a successful development are assured, there remains to be solved the all-important problem of labor.

The negro is proverbially indolent, and tropical nature yields what he needs almost without any labor. What he finds most disagreeable is steady, strictly regulated work under white supervision. Hence the difficulty of securing plantation and railroad hands; and they demand excessive wages. Successful efforts are now being made to contract for laborers from the thickly settled interior in larger numbers and for longer periods. The second condition which awaits fulfillment is the construction of railroads. About 80 miles of road in use and 140 in course of building are scant means of communication in so vast a country, in which traffic by wagons is excluded for lack of draught animals. Perhaps the contemplated parliamentary trip will conduce to the lengthening of this road into the interior.

In spite of the paucity of railroads, and the difficulties of the labor question, German industry has achieved gratifying results, which are evidenced in the colony's balance of trade. The region about Lake Victoria Nyanza has in the last years assumed special importance; its surplus of cattle, with their by-products, is carried to the British port Mombasa; cotton is beginning to be raised on a great scale, and, finally, it is hoped that gold may be exploited with the increase of transport facilities.

Some foes of colonization, the writer concludes, may find his description too optimistic. But it is based, he adds, upon personal knowledge of land and people. They will, naturally, hold up the unexpected revolt of the natives in 1905 as a factor to be reckoned with in retarding the economic development of the country. To give the actual reasons for those strange uprisings seems impossible, as the suppositions are so numerous; but of how little danger these opponents are to German arms is shown by the small sacrifice the revolt cost the Germans,—23 dead, 12 wounded! Fortunately, the disturbances were confined to the south; the central and northern parts, which contain the German plantations, remaining untouched.

Finally, the objection that East Africa is a financial drain on the empire should be withdrawn.

Remove the heavy military burden, which the empire and not the colony has to bear; diminish the cost of administration by recalling the numerous useless officials, and, lastly, clear the debt of 600,000 marks which the colony has to pay annually to the German East African Company on a loan contracted by the empire.

REASONS FOR ANGLO-GERMAN FRIENDSHIP.

IT is, of course, impossible to point to any overt act on the part of the German and English governments or the German and English peoples which would lend support to the statement that the two nations are rapidly drifting toward active hostility. Despite the recent visit of the British King to Germany, however, and the German teachers' cordial reception in London, and despite all belief to the contrary by peace-loving editors like Mr. Stead, the fact remains that the British press, as a whole, is full of anti-German sentiments, and the inspired periodicals of the Fatherland are generally bitterly anti-British. One need only pick up any issue of such representative British monthlies as the *National Review* or the *Contemporary* to see how Germany is regarded in England as having become the traditional and inevitable enemy of Britain, whom the British army and the British fleet will some day have to meet in battle. On the other hand, such articles as the inspired one recently appearing in the *Deutsche Revue*, on the purchase price of German favor to England, in which the writer refers to the Anglo-French understanding in these words:

"The policy of *ententes* which excludes Germany and is directed against Germany is an exceedingly dangerous policy for England," are not calculated to strengthen the rest of the world's belief in Berlin's protestations of peace and love for all mankind, the Englishman in particular.

Count Bernstorff, son of a former Prussian Ambassador to England, and himself for a long time in close relations with that country, discusses very judicially, in the *Deutsche Revue*, the causes of this discord between Germany and Great Britain. If the people of the respective countries understood each other better, he maintains, and made due allowance for varying conditions, the feeling of animosity, the writer believes, would yield to kinder sentiments.

Among other things he says that the English are, as a rule, conversant only with their own tongue; it is, consequently, difficult for them to fully judge a foreign nation, in spite of their traveling propensity, and but few Germans visit England.

There is an obvious difference, too, between the inner policy of England and, for instance, that of the leading German state.

In the former, the parliamentary system has been developed through ages of struggle in which the practical English sense and respect for law have been essential aids.

Prussia has become what she is through her princes. The rightful participation of the people in the government is a thing to be gradually naturalized. Even to-day many politicians question whether, with the growth of Social-Democracy, a Reichstag based upon universal suffrage can remain a permanent institution. In England such problems have already been solved and are matters of history. Many Germans regard the parliamentary government of England with mistrust,—for instance in the way of concluding treaties with her, since a certain ministry in question may at any time give way to another,—while Germans strike Englishmen as reactionary.

As to the question of religion, in Germany the political parties coincide with the religious ones; it is, for example, taken for granted that the Conservatives are believers and the Social-Democrats atheists. German liberalism believes the abandonment of firm Christian doctrines necessary to its full development. In England historical tradition is quite different. Cromwell was a strong Calvinist. Among those who in his time achieved political freedom, the Puritans were foremost. Even now the most positive Christian believers are to be found in the ranks of the Liberal politicians. In the Count's estimation, firm religious conviction is an element of strength, and this the German Liberals lack.

In social concerns the Englishman is more conservative than the German. The wealth of the old aristocracy is regarded with less envy; their display of a certain amount of luxury is liked,—nay, desired,—while in Germany it is begrudged.

England's policy of expansion is not peculiar to her, since it is shared by all great nations. Her insular position makes inner extension impossible. Most of the conquests of Victoria's reign were commercial footholds. To term this a "commercial policy" is not just. Since Germany's flag floats in all seas, in all portions of the globe, she too, has had to gain colonies which essentially serve the purposes of trade.

For 200 years England has been ruled by monarchs of German extraction. This, which might seem to form a bond of union, has in various quarters aroused a fear among the English of foreign interference.

For the rest, the press is undoubtedly greatly to blame for the existing ill-humor in the two countries. In England the public has long been accustomed to see everything treated in their newspapers; they discuss



FAST FRIENDS!

But the best of friends sometimes fall out.

From *Neue Gluklichter*, Vienna.

matters with perfect freedom; therefore, without fully realizing their responsibility for the effect produced in foreign countries. And in Germany, also, it is undeniable that the way King Edward was spoken of by the press on his accession, as well as its attitude during the Boer War, was well calculated to irritate the British.

In spite of some differences, which have here been indicated, the two nations are, after all, kindred. The German who knows the English feels much nearer to them than, for instance, to the Latin or Slavic peoples. There has always been an active interchange in science and literature between the two nations. German science is held in high esteem in England, while the rich English literature is widely read in Germany.

The real ground of the present dissension between the brother nations lies in the fact that England, the mistress of the sea, "looks with a certain jealousy upon the growth of the German navy and the magnificent development of German commerce and industry." The Germans, in conclusion, will not allow themselves to be disturbed by this jealousy in their maritime and commercial expansion. The feeling will pass away with time; but the German press should take care not to augment it by attacks upon England.

HARD LOT OF THE SWISS SILK-WEAVERS.

THE popular idea of Switzerland as a land without poverty or oppression is rudely shaken by Erik Givskov, a Danish sociologist who has studied the Swiss peasantry in their own homes, and who writes, in *Nordisk Tidskrift* (Stockholm) of some of his observations. He gives the title of "Embroidery as a Home Industry" to his article, because it deals principally with the efforts of the peasantry in the cantons of St. Gallen and Appenzell to eke out the meager yields of their barren, overtaxed, and deeply mortgaged hillside farms by producing some of the four well-known kinds of Swiss embroidery,—either by hand or with the help of machines.

Mr. Givskov found an overwhelming majority of the small landowners and agrarian workers in the northeast corner of Switzerland living under conditions so unwholesome that it would take the crowded tenement districts of a city like New York to duplicate them, and this notwithstanding the fact that their poverty-stricken homes are built in the midst of scenery which gathers thousands of beauty-loving tourists each year from all corners of the earth.

"Let us enter one of the houses that look so inviting and neat from the road," says Mr. Givskov.

As early as September the fire is lit in the enormous stove that occupies nearly one-fourth of the space in the small, low-ceilinged room. For without the snow is covering all the hills, and we have been making our way to the house through deep slush. Therefore, they must have fire in the stove; but what temperature and what air result from it! Whatever of light and air find a way past the potted plants in the narrow and closely shut windows is, as a rule, shut out by the silk looms that are placed as close to the windows as possible in order to catch every glimpse of daylight. In this small room, where a man of average size generally can touch the ceiling with the crown of his hat, the whole family lives, takes its food, and sleeps. A certain outward cleanliness prevails, of course, because the work demands it, but in regard to the care of their own persons the peasants are indescribably negligent, and the exudations of the various members of the family mingle with the smoke from the stove, the smell from the lamp, and the smoke from the tobacco pipes into an atmosphere that almost robs the visitor of his breath.

The food consists of bread, mush, potatoes, a drink euphemistically named "coffee," and, in moments of comparative prosperity, some fat. To keep up this kind of life the peasants,—men, women, and chil-

dren,—work from 12 to 16 hours a day, never leaving the house for a moment except when the scanty harvest of hay has to be garnered. One of the results of this life is that the mortality rate is higher in the country than in the cities throughout Switzerland. And each new generation is more "worm-eaten" than the preceding one.

MEAGER EARNINGS OF THESE WORKERS.

The interesting figures given by Mr. Givskov regarding the earnings of those engaged in making embroideries must here be summarized into the statement that a franc and a half,—or 30 cents,—a day is a fair average. Goaded on by extreme necessity, they cling to their work to the very edge of the grave, and the Danish writer saw more than one tottering octogenarian slaving through the long hours between sunrise and sunset to earn 50 centimes,—that is, 10 cents. How many are dependent on such wages for their living may be judged by the fact that in the canton of Appenzell alone there are more than 43,000 persons employed at making embroideries by machine, while 3000 more are using their hands for the same purpose. To make worse conditions already evil in themselves, the workers are not permitted to deal directly with the manufacturers. Between employers and employed stand a class of middlemen, most of whom are saloonkeepers and owners of small shops. They cheat the workers mercilessly and rob them still more effectively by refusing employment to any one who will not spend what little he earns in the middleman's shop or tavern.

The children are the worst sufferers from this system, being compelled to get up before daylight to do a part of their share of the work before going to school, and then having to toil from their return till nearly midnight. At school they fall asleep, of course, and of learning they get little or none. These children, according to Mr. Givskov, are undersized, round-shouldered, and withered before they grow up. Statistics prove that 50 per cent. among them are suffering from bronchitis, epilepsy, or chronic dyspepsia.

The principal reasons for this state of affairs Mr. Givskov sees in mistaken land laws, which make it possible for the big landowners to grind out of the peasants anything these can earn above mere necessity, and in the prevailing system of direct taxation. An

oasis in this desert of despair,—and an additional proof for his contention,—the Danish sociologist discovered in the villages of Buchs and Grabs, where the peasants own the earth in common, and till it co-operatively. It was the one really prosperous spot he ran across in that part of Switzerland.

Mr. Givskov points out that an industry which brings so little to the workers themselves pours millions of francs into the country. But the beneficiaries are the manufac-

turers, who, as a rule, withdraw from business early in life as owners of comfortable fortunes. Yet those peasants have full suffrage; and they use it to maintain a tariff that practically doubles the price of food.

But this does not mean that the home industry is doomed. The impossibility for the Swiss peasants to derive a decent income from their work is the result of social, not of economical, causes. Give them only access to the soil, and the small industries will again flourish in the huts of the land.

"LITTLE DORRIT" AS SHE IS TO-DAY.

TAKING advantage of the fact that under the patronage of some well-known London ladies, Mrs. Mary Ann Cooper, the original of Dickens' "Little Dorrit," was conducting a bazaar in aid of some poor boys, a representative of the London *Daily Chronicle* called on the old lady, several weeks ago, and had a very interesting talk with her concerning her personal reminiscences of Dickens.

Mrs. Cooper, who is now in her ninety-fifth year, was once a famous beauty. Her portrait was painted by a famous portrait painter, and her bust cut in marble by a well-known sculptor of the past generation, both works of art being exhibited at the Royal Academy. The work of the sculptor was purchased by the present Duke of Devonshire.

Mrs. Cooper, whose maiden name was Mitton, lived with her parents in Clarendon Square in 1822, opposite a house occupied by the Dickens family. A boy-and-girl friendship sprang up between Charles and Mary Ann, which lasted for many years, and some memories of which were given in these columns last spring. It should be added that Dickens' heroine merely took her name from a nickname bestowed on Mary Ann in her youth, and that the adventures of "Little Dorrit" as a child of the Marshalsea had no foundation in fact as regards Mrs. Cooper. At 94 Mrs. Cooper is slightly deaf and suffers from rheumatism, and, although her memories of "Phiz," Dickens' first illustrator, are growing dim, those concerning "my Charles," as she calls Dickens, are retained and possibly embellished through much repeating.

"Little Dorrit," as greatly beloved in the village of Southgate to-day as when, to Charles Dickens she "seemed the least, the

quietest, the weakest of Heaven's creatures," enjoys excellent health, physically and mentally.

The accompanying drawing was made from a photograph sold at the Bazaar. It shows "Little Dorrit" as she is to-day,—just after her ninety-fourth birthday.



"LITTLE DORRIT" AS SHE LOOKS TO-DAY.

Of the immortal novel, in which Little Dorrit plays the title rôle, there have been endless praise and criticism. In the current number of the *Westminster Review*, Mr. William A. Sibbald, writing on "Charles Dickens Revisited," says: "Those passages in which the Father of the Marshalsea figures, for mordant humor and realism of the irony of juxtaposition, are not to be surpassed."

THE DANGERS IN A KISS.

THE repulsion generally shown by children for the kiss is the best proof that kissing does not result from a sentiment innate in man. It results, not from natural sentiment, but from a custom which, in some instances, is capable of engendering cruel maladies. The fact that savages do not kiss is also a proof that kissing is not an innate human expression. Human beings, no matter whence they hail, express the same natural sentiments, albeit they do so in ways testifying to different degrees of refinement, not to say brutality. From a long paper written by Dr. Nalpasse (of the Medical Faculty of Paris, and physician to the Persian Legation at Constantinople) we extract the following:

Adults may escape the evil consequences of the kiss. They are strong and able to repel disease. But the delicate organism of an infant is helpless. The culture of microbes is rapid when the victim is weak. A malady may be at work, yet it may give no sign until fully developed, and even when developed the cause may be hidden for a time. The victims may appear to be in health even while the internal evil is making ravages to end in death. The germs of scarlet fever, measles, whooping cough, the typhoid fevers, meningitis, erysipelas, tuberculosis,—in a word, many diseases due to microbes,—are transmitted by the supposedly inoffensive kiss.

Modern science teaches us that saliva and the nasal secretions are reservoirs of an incalculable number of microbes, many of them pathogenous. Bacteriology proves that one square centimeter of the human lips holds more than 40,000 microbes. If they are not always noxious to man, some of them may be fatal if the one who comes in contact with them is too weak to resist them. Pathological physiology demonstrates that the nasal passages, whose functions are to filter the air inhaled, prevent the entrance to the lungs of dust and the microbes of the air. Thanks to the efficiency of the nose, nearly all the noxious properties of the atmosphere are eliminated.

Different authors of scientific works have experimented and by their experiments proved that the number of pathogenous microbes carried about by healthy people increases according to the time they spend among diseased people. Nurses in hospitals habitually carry microbes. Their hygienic mode of life, however, enables them to resist the diseases which their germs would engender in ailing, or physically neglected people.

The microbes increase or decrease as our atmospheric conditions vary. People in perfect health may carry large numbers of pathogenous microbes in their nasal passages; for instance, pneumococques (the bacilli of pneumonia), streptococques (the bacilli of erysipelas), and all the suppurative complications, pseudo-diphtheric bacilli, the bacilli of Friedlander, different sorts of staphylococques (the bacilli of superficial suppurations of the skin, such as boils, carbuncles, flegmons, and ganglions), and many infectious diseases. Strauss, who has made very minute examinations, declares that the bacilli of tuberculosis (Koch's bacilli) are found in the people who live among consumptives but who are healthy (doctors, nurses, hospital walkers and so forth). Adults with strong constitutions are not affected by their microbes, because they have a counteracting presence, the phagocytes. The phagocytes destroy the noxious microbes, but in children who are weak, notably in infants, they are defenseless. There is no co-operation of the organism to back them, and therefore the microbes proceed with their deadly work. There are microbes which subsist a relatively long time in the mouth of a child, and they may remain there even after the disease caused by them is cured. Loeffler's bacillus (the bacillus of diphtheria) may be found in the mouths of people who have had diphtheria long after the disease has disappeared, and children cured of diphtheria are a menace to the little ones with whom they come in contact.

We cannot wholly suppress the "scourge consecrated by the ill-advised acceptance of the weak mimicry of custom called the kiss, but we can take precautions and do our best to counteract its undeniable dangers."

Mothers should be advised by doctors to disinfect their children when they come home from an airing. It is not enough to wash the mouth out with soap and water. All parts of the body not covered by the clothing must be swabbed with a wash composed of equal parts of tepid boiled water and tinctura of quillaya. Immediately after this bath pass over all the parts so washed a lotion made as follows (we will call the lotion "Anti-Phillima"): 1 gram of thymol of menthol and salol, 10 grams of benzoic acid, 12 grams of essence of violets dissolved in 250 grams of alcohol (95°), mixed with a solution composed of 10 grams of bicarbonate of soda and 15 grams of boric acid dissolved in 1750 grams of distilled water. A simple filtering will make this lotion clear and limpid.

No one need aspire to suppress the habit of kissing among adults. It would be as futile as to preach in a desert. Nevertheless, Dr. Jules Félix, the unquestioned authority on skin diseases, tells us that there are some countries of Europe where there are a great many people afflicted with appalling skin diseases contracted from the custom of kissing among men.

THE NEW BOOKS.

NOTES ON RECENT AMERICAN PUBLICATIONS.

POETRY AND THE DRAMA.

An absorbing story of a most interesting phase of artistic and social development in England is Dr. Watson Nicholson's "Struggle for a Free Stage in London" (Houghton, Mifflin). Dr. Nicholson, who is instructor in English at Yale, traces the history of nearly two centuries in which London tried to free herself from the theatrical monopoly. The triumph was reached when the passage (on August 22, 1843) of the parliamentary act known as the Theater Regulation bill deprived the two patent theaters, Drury Lane and Covent Garden, of their monopoly of playing Shakespeare and the national drama.

A two-volume work on the "Dramatic Opinions and Essays" of G. Bernard Shaw comes to us from Brentanos. These contain Mr. Shaw's well-known opinions on art and life, and include "a word on these dramatic opinions and essays," by James Huneker. Brentano has also published the third volume of the collected plays of Mr. Shaw, which is entitled "Three Plays for Puritans." These plays are: "The Devil's Disciple, A Melodrama," "Cæsar and Cleopatra, A Page of History," and "Captain Brassbound's Conversion, A Play of Adventure." By many these dramas are considered Mr. Shaw's ripest and most characteristic work.

Mr. Thomas R. Lounsbury (of the chair of English at Yale) has completed his series of volumes of "Shakespearean Wars" (Scribner). The first was "Shakespeare as a Dramatic Artist," which was followed by "Shakespeare and Voltaire." We now have "The Text of Shakespeare," tracing its history from the publication of the quartos and folios down to and including the publication of the editions of Pope and Theobald.

Mr. Sidney Lee's idea of "surveying Shakespearean drama in relation to modern life and illustrating its living force in current affairs" furnishes him with a theme for his volume "Shakespeare and the Modern Stage" (Scribner).

Tolstoi, it will be remembered, some years ago undertook to demolish Shakespeare. The great Englishman, in the opinion of the great Russian, was a genius, but as a dramatist he has been much overrated. Count Tolstoi's views on this subject have been brought out in a volume entitled "Tolstoi on Shakespeare" (Funk & Wagnalls), in the translation of Tcherikov and I. F. M. The little volume includes, also, an essay on Shakespeare's attitude toward the working classes, by the late Ernest Crosby, and a letter from G. Bernard Shaw.

To have published three books, in two languages, before reaching the age of 22 is certainly a distinction. To have secured ungrudging praise from eminent critics in these two languages (English and German) for originality, power, and literary craftsmanship is truly a great achievement. This, however, is the

achievement of Mr. George Sylvester Viereck, a young German-American poet, whose three books: "Gedichte" (verses in German already noticed in this Review), "Nineveh und Andere Gedichte" (also German, just published by Cotta, in Stuttgart), and "A Game at Love, and Other Plays" (a series of five dramalets recently brought out, in English, by Brentanos) have come to our book table. The plays are vivid bits of intensive writing, full of color, passion, imagination, and sophistication, the last, however, quite evidently not the result of experience but due to a somewhat decadent outlook upon life. Mr. Viereck has a truly Greek love of beauty and joy, but not even this and his true poetic fire can conceal his decadence. It is strange (as he himself confesses in his fine poem "The Sphinx") that he, so young in years, should be in love with the oldest thing in the world.

We are in receipt of a number of dramas or collections of plays, which include: "Lords and Lovers, and Other Poems," by Olive Tilford Dargan (Scribners); "Jeanne D'Arc," by Percy Mackaye (Macmillan); "Pride and Prejudice," by Mrs. Steele Mackaye (Duffield); "Prince Ivo of Bohemia," by Arthur Sitgreaves Mann (The Grafton Press), and "Farces," including "The Dictator," "The Galloper," and "Miss Civilization," by Richard Harding Davis (Scribners).

Mr. William Ellery Leonard shows some real poetic insight and complete mastery of poetic form in his little collection of verse entitled "Sonnets and Poems," which he publishes himself (at Madison, Wis.). In the sonnets, particularly, does Mr. Leonard show his gift of true poetic fire.

Mrs. Sophia P. Shaler has edited and published, through Houghton, Mifflin & Co., a collection of the verses written by her late husband, Prof. Nathaniel S. Shaler. She calls the volume "From Old Fields." The poems are chiefly about Civil War topics, although, as she says in her prefatory note, Professor Shaler always "claimed the whole world as his by divine right of sympathy."

The Macmillans have brought out the first of the two-volume edition of the collected poetical works of W. B. Yeats. The present volume contains the lyrical poems. The second, on the dramas, will appear, it is announced, in the course of the next few months.

A series of studies of "Modern Poets and Christian Teaching" has been brought out by Eaton & Mains. The series so far includes studies of the works of Browning (by Frank C. Lockwood), Matthew Arnold (by James Main Dixon), and a volume including Richard Watson Gilder, Edwin Markham, and Edward Rowland Sill (by David G. Downey).

"A Book of Music" is the title of Mr. Richard Watson Gilder's latest collection of poems (Century Company). The verses included in

this little volume relate directly or indirectly to music, and have for their subjects poems on Padreswki, Rubinstein, and Handel and other musical themes. Though, says Mr. Gilder, "no music I can make, I trust here's proof I love it."

"Love Songs and Bugle Calls" (Barnes) is the title of a collection of verse by Virginia Frazer Boyle. The collection includes a musical extravaganza entitled "Demetria."

Katrina Trask has written a number of poems around the theme enunciated by Plato: "Love is the interpreter and mediator between God and man." These verses, with the general title "Night and Morning," have just been published by John Lane.

After nearly a lifetime of prose writing, Mr. Thomas Nelson Page has launched forth into a volume of verse, which he calls "The Coast of Bohemia" (Scribners). The collection includes some of the dialect verses which have already appeared in magazine form, besides quite a number which have never before been published.

The Macmillans have brought out an American edition of Mr. Alfred Noyes' "Poems." Mr. Noyes, who is looked upon in England as destined to "be of the greatest service in the re-establishment of the great traditions of English song," is only 26 years of age. He is an Oxford man who has already published three or four volumes of verse.

Mr. Daniel Henry Holmes' collection of clever short verses has been called "A Peddler's Pack" and published by Ernest Dressel North.

"The Rosary," by Robert Cameron Rogers, is the title of a collection of poems (published by John Lane) to amplify the tribute to his lady love, the hours spent with whom, he declares, are his rosary.

A fine, swinging translation of "Nibelungenlied" was written by the late John Storer Cobb just before his death. It has been brought out under the editorship of his widow, Mary S. Cobb. Small, Maynard & Co. are the publishers. Miss Mary E. Lewis, in her study of "The Ethics of Wagner's Ring of the Nibelung" (Putnam), has attempted to set forth the ideals of conduct set forth in Wagner's lyrical poems.

A second series of Miss Carolyn Wells' collection of riddles called "At the Sign of the Sphinx" has been brought out by Duffield & Co.

Among other volumes of recently issued verse we have received the following: "In Praise of Leaves, and Other Verse" (Lothrop, Lee & Shepard), by Lilian Shuman Dreyfus; "Random Rhymes and Odd Numbers" (Macmillan), by Wallace Irwin; "In the Shadow of the Crag" (San Francisco: Walter N. Brunt Company), by Mabel Porter Pitts; "Last Verses" (Little, Brown), by Susan Coolidge; "The Worker, and Other Poems" (Macmillan), by Coningsby William Dawson; "Misrepresentative Women" (New York: Duffield & Co.), by Harry Graham; "Many Moods and Many Minds" (John Lane Company), by Louis James Block; "Chinatown Ballads" (Duffield & Co.), by Wallace Irwin; "A Little Book of Boreds" (Scribners), by Oliver Herford; and "The Man with the Spade" (The Citograph, Redlands, Cal.), by Henry Goodcell. We have also received the following collections of verse, and new editions: "The Complete Works of

William Shakespeare" (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.), edited by Prof. William Allan Neilson; "The Lyrical Poems of Robert Browning" (Little, Brown), arranged by A. J. George; "The Friendly Town, A Little Book for the Urbane" (Holt), compiled by E. V. Lucas; "The Lyrics of the Restoration" (Stokes), selected and edited by John and Constance Masefield; "A Sentiment in Verse for Every Day in the Year" (Philadelphia: S. Burns Weston), compiled by Walter L. Sheldon, and "Twelfth Night" (Crowell), one of the "First Folio" Shakespeare series being edited by Charlotte Porter and Helen A. Clark.

NEW WORKS OF HISTORY AND BIOGRAPHY.

The Macmillans are the American publishers of the edition in English of the Hohenlohe memoirs, which they have just brought out under the full title of "The Memoirs of Prince Chlodwig of Hohenlohe-Schillingsfürst." The work is published in two volumes and contains the full text of all the letters and diary entries, translated, under the supervision of George W. Chrystal (of Balliol College, Oxford), from the original German text authorized by Prince Alexander Hohenlohe, and edited by Prof. Friedrich Curtius. There are many illustrations and an editorial preface by Professor Curtius. This work has already been described and commented upon in these pages (see "Leading Article" entitled "The Hohenlohe 'Recollections,'" in the December number, and the "Progress" paragraph entitled "Indiscreet 'Recollections,'" in the November number). It only remains to say here that the English edition is satisfactorily printed and bound.

The chapter on "An Arab Princess," in Mme. Arvede Barine's "Princesses and Court Ladies" (Putnam), is as interesting a piece of biography as we have seen for some time. The volume, which is a translation from the French and handsomely illustrated, is the third of Mme. Barine's series on the lives of royalties, the first being "The Youth of La Grande Mademoiselle," and the second "Louis XIV. and La Grande Mademoiselle."

We now have the authoritative biography of Lafcadio Hearn. This work, in two volumes, under the general title "The Life and Letters of Lafcadio Hearn," comes from the press of Houghton, Mifflin & Co., and has been written by Elizabeth Bisland. These volumes are finely illustrated and contain practically all of the Hearn biographical material of which we have any knowledge. Mrs. Bisland enjoyed Hearn's friendship for nearly 30 years and is his authorized biographer. The letters of this remarkable character are as interesting and distinctive, in many respects, as the correspondence of Robert Louis Stevenson. Especially interesting are the intimate notes to American friends after his taking up his residence in Japan.

NEW EDITIONS OF STANDARD WORKS.

An exceedingly interesting historically illustrated edition of George Eliot's "Romola," edited with introduction and notes by Dr. Guido Biagi (librarian of the Laurentian Library, Florence), comes to us from McClurg. The work is in two volumes, containing 160 engravings of scenes and character, reproductions of

historic and literary Florence. The letter press is excellent, and the whole work has a scholarly character,—a result which was well worth the labor put on it by Dr. Biagi and the publishers. The introduction is particularly illuminating, treating as it does of "The Making of the Romance."

A finely illustrated edition of Longfellow's "Hiawatha" on supercoated paper, with illustrations in color by Harrison Fisher and general page decorations by E. Stetson Crawford, has been brought out by Bobbs-Merrill.

We are in receipt of the texts of classics in foreign languages, for schools: In French, the poems of Victor Hugo, with introduction and notes by Professor Canfield, of the University of Michigan, and L'Abbé Daniel of André Theuriot, edited by Professor Taylor, of Dartmouth (both issued by Holt); and, in German, Heinrich Seidel's "Aus goldenen Tagen," edited by Dr. Wilhelm Bernhardt, and "Willkommen in Deutschland," by Dr. William E. Mosher (both published by Heath).

McClurg has brought out a handsomely bound edition, with explanation and comment by Clark E. Carr, of Lincoln's address at Gettysburg.

A new twelve-volume library edition of Prescott's complete works has been brought out by Crowell. The type is good and clear, and the illustrations,—which include reproductions of rare portraits, maps, and paintings,—are useful additions to the text. The set includes: the life of "Ferdinand and Isabella," "The Conquest of Mexico," and "The Conquest of Peru," the lives of "Philip II." and "Charles V.," a volume of "Miscellanies," and the authorized "Life of Prescott," in one volume, by George Ticknor.

The fourth series of the Shelburne essays of Paul Elmer More, originally appearing in the *International Quarterly*, the *Independent*, the *New York Evening Post*, and other periodicals, has been brought out by the Putnams.

NEW REFERENCE BOOKS.

A work that has become widely known within the past four or five years to librarians, publishing houses, and members of the book trade is the "United States Catalogue" (Minneapolis: The H. W. Wilson Company). The first edition of this publication, comprising books in print in the year 1902, has been continued by means of a cumulative index. From the annual numbers of this index there has now been compiled a supplement, including books published during the years 1902-1905, inclusive. This volume of over 2000 pages is more, however, than a mere compilation of the annual index volumes, since it includes more than 2000 titles which were omitted from the current numbers of the index because the price or publisher could not be found, and which have been traced in many cases, we are told, with much difficulty and only after extensive correspondence. This very useful and satisfactory catalogue has been edited throughout by Miss Marion E. Potter, to whom the publishers ascribe all credit for the merit of the work. The excellence of the catalogue has been tested many times in the REVIEW OF REVIEWS office, and we do not hesitate to commend it to all librarians and others interested in having a convenient and accurate record of the

titles, authors, and prices of books published during the current decade.

"Nelson's Encyclopedia" (New York: Thomas Nelson & Sons), now complete in 12 volumes, very satisfactorily meets the demand for a convenient and reliable book of reference at a moderate price. Some of the longer articles (for example, that on railroads, occupying 25 pages of small type) are comprehensive and as nearly exhaustive as encyclopedia articles can well be made. The minor subjects are treated in a terse and condensed manner. We have already alluded in these pages to particular volumes as they have come from the press.

English-speaking students of the Hebrew Old Testament now have a lexicon which is believed to meet the exacting demands of modern scholarship. This work, which has been many years in preparation, is based on the lexicon of William Gesenius as translated by the late Edward Robinson. Its editors are Francis Brown, S. R. Driver, and Charles A. Briggs, three men acknowledged in both England and America to be in the first rank of the world's Hebrew scholars. The work is published by Messrs. Houghton, Mifflin & Co., and typographically it is a model that might well be followed in other dictionaries of foreign tongues.

Volume VII. of the *Printing Art*, an illustrated monthly magazine (Cambridge: The University Press), has only recently come to hand. This magazine, touching upon both bibliography and typography, is based upon the idea of showing actual examples of fine book and commercial printing and color work, together with authoritative articles upon the artistic phases of printing. In addition to the articles in the text, many of which are of permanent value, there are numerous exhibits, including examples from many of the leading publishing houses, printers, and engravers, and altogether affording what is believed by the publishers to be the most comprehensive showing ever made of American printing.

John Wiley & Sons have brought out two useful works on sanitation: "The Outlines of Practical Sanitation," illustrated for students, physicians, and sanitarians, by Dr. Harvey B. Bashore, inspector for the Pennsylvania Department of Health, and "Elements of Sanitary Engineering" (revised and enlarged edition), by Mansfield Merriman, professor of civil engineering in Lehigh University.

A voluminous and carefully edited list of works on the United States Navy has been compiled by Charles T. Harbeck (printed by the Riverside Press, Cambridge), under the title "A Contribution to the Bibliography of the History of the United States Navy."

SOME RECENT BOOKS ON RELIGIOUS SUBJECTS.

A new study of Christ's personality as a great human teacher is Dr. William B. Hartzog's "Ancient Masters and Jesus," which has just been brought out by the German Baptist Publication Society. It is a comparative analysis of the "spontaneous and reflective thought of the Greek thinkers and the positive teachings of Jesus."

A new work of theological discussion

is Prof. Clarence A. Beckwith's "Realities of Christian Theology" (Houghton, Mifflin). Christian belief may be ever the same, declares Mr. Beckwith (who is professor of systematic theology in the Chicago Theological Seminary), but the interpretation of Christian experience varies from age to age. Such an interpretation, in the light of modern intelligence, Mr. Beckwith attempts to give in this volume.

A number of studies of religious problems of to-day, including manuals for church workers, have been brought out by Jennings & Graham. President Samuel Plantz (of Lawrence University) has written "The Church and the Social Problem,—A Study in Applied Christianity;" Dr. John R. T. Lathrop, in "How a Man Grows," outlines the problem of human development from the standpoint of philosophy, ethics, and the Christian religion; in "Workable Plans for Wide-Awake Churches," Dr. Christian F. Reisner gives the result of his experience during many years of active pastoral work; Dr. J. P. Brushingham, secretary of the General Conference Commission on Aggressive Evangelism (Methodist), presents a series of studies in "vital evangelism" under the title "Catching Men;" Dr. Charles Roads, author of "Christ Enthroned in the Industrial World," furnishes us with a series of analytical and synthetic "Bible Studies for Teacher Training;" Bishop Charles H. Fowler and Dr. Carl G. Doney supply collections of sermons,—Bishop Fowler's under the title "Missionary Addresses," Dr. Doney's as "The Throne-Room of the Soul;" and the Merrick Lectures for 1905-6, under the title "The New Age and Its Creed," with an introduction by Herbert Welch.

Mr. Lewis A. Hart, of the law department of McGill University, Montreal, has brought out, through the Bloch Publishing Company, "A Jewish Reply to Christian Evangelists."

Three books of reference for religious work, just from the press, are: the first volume of "The Book of Psalms," in the International Critical Commentary, prepared by Dr. Charles A. Briggs, the series being issued by the Scribners; "The Illustrative Lesson Notes for 1907" (Eaton & Mains); and "The Teacher's Guide to the International Sunday-School Lessons for 1907," by Martha Tarbell (Bobbs-Merrill).

We have received the following other books on religious or ethical topics, either new or revised editions: "The Moral Damage of War" (Ginn & Co.), by the Rev. Walter Walsh, of Dundee, Scotland; "A New Appraisal of Christian Science" (Funk & Wagnalls), by Dr. Joseph Dunn Burrell; "Studies in the Book of Job" (Scribner), by Rev. Francis N. Peloubet; "Paul the Apostle, As Viewed by a Layman" (Little, Brown), by Edward H. Hall; the fourth edition of C. T. Stockwell's "Evolution of Immortality" (James H. West); an "Outline of the Vedanta System of Philosophy" (The Grafton Press), by Prof. Paul Deussen, of the University of Kiel, translated by J. H. Woods; "Short Studies of Old Testament Heroes" (Jennings & Graham), by Emma Robinson and Charles Morgan; a new and revised edition of "A Century of Bibles" (the Griffith & Rowland Press); "The Guiding Star to a Higher Spiritual Condition," by W. W. Aber, published at Allentown, Pa., by Philip Nadig, and "Morality

and the Perfect Life," being a republication of a lecture by the late Henry James (father of the novelist), published by the New Church Educational Association, at Elkhart, Ind.

OTHER NEW BOOKS.

A study of "The New Art of an Ancient People" (the Jews), prepared by Mr. M. S. Levussove, of the College of the City of New York, has been brought out by Huebsch. It is really a monograph on the sketches and paintings of Ephraim Mose Lilien, the Galician Jew painter.

Five books about the automobile, or with automobiling for a subject, recently brought out are: Charles Jarrott's graphic, illustrated "Ten Years of Motors and Motor Racing" (Dutton); "Whys and Wherefores of the Automobile," an explanation of the elements of the gasoline motor car, prepared for the non-technical reader (The Automobile Institute, Cleveland); the "Auto Guest Book of Mobile Maxims," prepared by Ethel Watts Mumford Grant and Richard Butler Glaenger (Paul Elder); "The Making of an Automobilst," by H. A. Grant (the Auto-Instruct Publishing Company, New York); and "The A B C of Motoring," by Sigmund Krausz (Laird & Lee), being a complete digest of the motoring laws of 35 States, naming those which have no laws on the subject.

Mr. Bissessur Nath Chandik, "merchant and banker," of 34 Audiappa Naick street, Madras, India, has brought out two volumes on the Hindu philosophy of physical health, the Yoga. These are called the first elements and the second elements of the Yoga.

Among the increasing number of books on the sex question, written in a clean, wholesome, and uplifting way, we note the book entitled "Sexology" (Puritan Publishing Company), by Dr. William H. Walling.

In his essays on literary personages, entitled "The Vagabond in Literature" (Dent in London, Dutton in New York), Mr. Arthur Rickett declares that the six vagabonds-in-chief of English literature were Hazlitt, De Quincy, Borrow, Stevenson, Jeffries, and Whitman.

In "Prose You Ought to Know" (Revell). John Raymond Howard (managing editor of "The Library of the World's Best Poetry") has brought together a number of the best specimens of English prose during the past two centuries, and the publishers have presented the book in attractive typographical form.

Edward Hutton's study of that fifteenth-century Italian despot, "Sigismondo Pandolfo Malatesta—Lord of Rimini," has been brought out, with illustrations, by Dent in London, and imported by the Duttons.

Miss Lillian Whiting, whose "World Beautiful" books have given her a unique place in the literature of literature, has just completed her "Land of Enchantment" (Little, Brown), which is the account of a literary and artistic journey from Pike's Peak to the Pacific.

What seems to be a carefully prepared work on Southern literature comes to us from the press of the Neale Publishing Company. This is an historical and descriptive work, by Mr. Carl Holliday (of the English department of the University of Virginia).

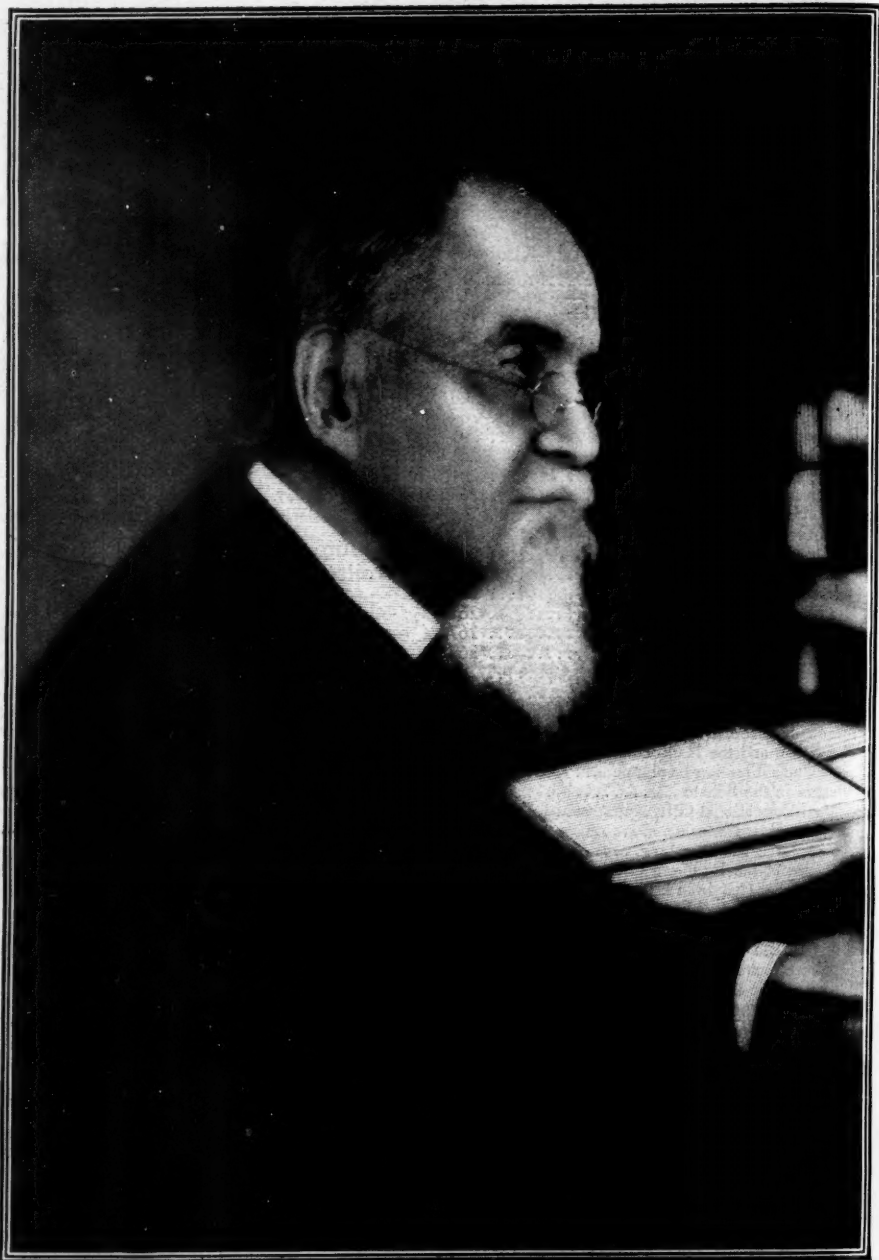
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HON. EDMUND W. PETTUS, UNITED STATES SENATOR FROM ALABAMA.

(Senator Pettus, who is now in his eighty-sixth year, has been unanimously re-elected by the Alabama Legislature for the full term of six years beginning in March, 1909. Mr. Pettus began his senatorial career ten years ago, never before that time having been a candidate for any political office. Should he live through the term for which he has just been chosen Senator Pettus will have reached the age of ninety-three. His colleague, Senator Morgan, who was also unanimously re-elected by the Alabama Legislature, has been a member of the Senate just thirty years. He will be nearly ninety years of age if he lives to complete the new term. Both of the Alabama Senators were brigadier-generals in the Confederate army.)